# BULLETIN

DE LA

# SOCIÉTÉ DE GÉOGRAPHIE D'ÉGYPTE

Tome XXXV



1962



# SOCIÉTÉ DE GÉOGRAPHIE D'ÉGYPTE

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# SOME GEOLOGICAL ASPECTS ABOUT EIN-EL-SIRA SPRING AREA, AT THE MOKATTAM FRONT

BY

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#### I.—ORIGIN OF EIN-EL-SIRA SPRING

Ein-el-Sira is one of the remarkable geological features of the Mokattam front. It is a spring situated about 2 kms. to the west of Gebel-el-Gioushy, a portion of Gebel Mokattam. The outflow of the spring in the main basin fluctuates from the level-point-of-view throughout the year.

It has been noticed by Azadian (1928 see reference) that the maximum depth of water in the well-basin is about 3 meters when the Nile is low during winter and falls to 1.5 meters at times of the river-flood, (August-September). This feature was attributed to the fact that the percolation of the Nile water from the river to the spring-area takes approximately 6 month's time. The distance from the River to the spring is 2 kms., the ground in which the water migrates is jointed Middle Eocene. This phenomenon is well known from other river-fed-ground water-reaches elsewhere.

Gastinel (1868) came to the conclusion that part of the water of the spring (Ein) is coming from very deep down and is primary in origin. This conclusion was based on the observation that the temperature at the bottom of the basin is about 40° C. while the temperature of water at the surface is approximately 18° C., about the same as that of the atmosphere which has been recorded to be 21° C., in the average. It is assumed that in some respect he is right but the warm water is

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certainly not « primary» or « juvenile». i.e. of magmatic origin. It may come from some artesian reservoir probably east of the Nile and may be derived from the same or a corresponding source as the Helwan springs area (Middle-Eocene-joint-waters?).

The presence of a conspicuous fault at the source of the Ein or spring along which the water is rising speaks for this assumption (See Plate I, A-B). Since nearly every member of the younger limestone-marl-formations of Lower Egypt still carries some of its original salt content, so the mineralization of the spring could be easily explained. A good deal of salt is present in this water as shown from an analysis carried out by Gastinel.

Carbonic acid	0.048
Calcium chloride	1.400
Magnesium chloride	18.600
Sodium chloride	59.640
Calcium sulphate	6.000
Magnesium sulphate	34.280
Calcium carbonate	0.040
Iron bicarbonate	0.040
Organic matters	0.000
Total	120.000 Gm./litre

In some smaller depressions around the main basin the deposition of salts takes place owing to the rapid evaporation of the over-flow-water.

Gastinel added that the contribution of water from the Nile exceeds that coming from below. This seems to be confirmed by the level of water in the basin depending somehow, although belated, on the level of the Nile. He also noticed that the salt mineral content of water is variable during the two periods of low Nile and high Nile. It was found out that the concentration is low in winter on account of the maximum inflow of Nile water.

So the origin of water might be due to the presence of some subterraneous water within the reaches of the Wadie East of our area. This might infiltrate into jointed limestones and percolate at some depth, possibly due to the general inclination of the Eastern, limestone-marl-sequence from East towards West, (although locally sometimes reversed). On its way, the water tends to attain a certain chemical equilibrium with the host-rocks and acquires mineral matter. Near the Nile, where the lowest level of the beds is attained and on the other hand, heavy jointing and some faults are present, the rising of the water in question, takes place and the Ein-el-Sira spring appears. It is assumed that Helwan spring belongs to a similar type as regards its origin.

Likewise it is suspected that some other springs are hidden beneath the surface sediments of the Nile Valley between the Mokattam and the area south of Helwan. In any case it seems absurd that these springs, as anticipated for the Helwan spring, should have some connection with the artesian horizons of the Western desert.

# II.—CORRELATION BETWEEN EIN-EL-SIRA LOWER QUARRIES AND LOWER MOKATTAM OF GEBEL-EL-GIOUSHY

The beds of the lower quarries to the west of the Mokattam at Einel-Sira area belong definitely to the Middle Eocene age. But it was rather difficult to fix their horizon among those of the Lower Mokattam of Gebel-el-Gioushy.

Accordingly a thorough field study was undertaken to find out whether there could be any relation between both sides of the whole area studied, G. El-Gioushy to the east and Ein-el-Sira to the west.

Cuvillier in 1930 considered the beds of the latter locality as the continuation of the Lower Mokattam beds of G. El-Gioushy namely the gasteropod bed (bed No. 3 of Kait-Bey section by Cuvillier) and the older ones which are not exposed on the G. El-Gioushy side (see Cuvillier p. 124 and section Plate 19). From the field observations, the beds of Ein-el-Sira side are generally seen to dip towards the east north east by an angle of 5-7 degrees and if they were continuous till G. El-Gioushy according to Cuvillier, then they should be under the surface of the bottom layers, that is, unexposed at all. This is definitely not the case, as they have been found out to be exposed above the lower part of

G. El-Gioushy overlying the Nummulites gizehensis bed. This fact was emphasized by a thorough micro-palaeontological and large foraminiferal study of some four samples undertaken by A. Ghorab and Y. Bishay. The collection of samples was carried out by the author; samples 1 and 2 were taken from the marly bed S. W. of Ein-el-Sira spring by about 300 meters and samples 3 and 4 from the thin marly limestone beds above N. Gizehensis zone at the Northern end of G. El-Gioushy. The study of the samples gave the following results:

#### SAMPLE No. 1:

- 1. Larger Forams:
  No larger forams, were found.
- 2. Ostracods:
  A rich ostracod fauna, comparable with that of sample No. 4.

#### 3. Small Forams:

few
1 specimen
common
common
rich
few
few
few
few
many
few

Sample No. 2 (above sample No. 1 by about 8-10 m.):

# 1. Larger Forams:

N. beaumonti, D. Archiac (B) N. subbeaumonti. De La Harpe (A);
N. mokattamensis, Bishay.

#### 2. Ostracods:

A fair Ostracod fauna, similar to sample No. 4, but containing more of the ornamented species.

## 3. Small Forams:

Quinqueloculina seminulum
Marginulina Behmi
Marginulina glabra
Virgulina of. squamosa
Bolivina moodysensis
Hopkensina bortotara var. aegyptiaca (Ansy)
Nonionella scapha
Globigerina sp.
Cibicides fletcheri few
Cibicides sp.
Baggina sp. and other forams.

## SAMPLE No. 3:

# 1. Large Forams:

Operculina Schwageti Silv.

N. Discorbinam, N. Sub-discorbina.

N. Beaumonti, N. Sub-beaumonti.

N. Mokattamensis, (Bishay).

Discocyclina nudimargo (Schwager).

- 2. Ostracods: a few but similar to samples 1, 2 and 4.
- 3. Small Forams:

Quinqueloculina Seminulum(common)Robulus isidis.one specimenDentaline sp.one specimenUvigerina charapotoensisfewAsterigerina sp.one specimenRotalia sp.very few

#### SAMPLE No. 4:

# 1. Larger Forams:

Operculina schwageri Silvestri. N. beaumonti, N. sub-beaumonti

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N. discorbinus, N. sub-discorbinus N. Mokattamensis Discocyclina nudimargo Gypsina, carteri Silvestri.

#### 2. Ostracods:

A rich ostracod fauna, similar to 1 and 2.

#### 3. Small Forams:

Textularia niloticum few Textularia aff. ligulatum few Quinqueloculina seminulum common Robulus isidis. common Bolivina moody sensis common Bolivina sp. few Uvigerina charapotoensis rich Elphidium species one specimen Asterigerina species few specimens

# Conclusions of the above study:

According to A Ghorab the small foraminifera of samples 1, 2, 3 and 4 are very poor in planktonic forms and the benthonic forms represent shallow water facies conditions. The foraminiferal fauna in these samples are not identically the same but the forms common to all the samples indicate that they all represent one and the same palaeontological unit.

According to Bishay the larger foraminiferal content indicates that the samples 2, 3 and 4 come from his *Disc. nudimargo*, *N. mokattamensis* zone which is 25-30 m. below the topzone of the Upper Lutetian.

The above conclusion proved that the samples studied belong to one and the same horizon which is above the Nummulites gizehensis bank and not below as Cuvillier had shown in his section (Fig. 19, p. 124).

Moreover, it also led to the fact that there should be a fault parallel to the Mokattam face between both sides with a downthrow on the Ein-el-Sira side and a vertical displacement of about 60-70 meters as shown from the profile section (see Map 1). This fault is not exposed on the surface, as it is covered by the old quarter of Cairo known as El-Imam-El-Shaffie which lies between both sides.

A NW- or NNW- strike is presumed to this fault, since the projection of the fault line should be visible in the SW-portion of the Mokattam face, if this fault line would belong to the usual EW-set displayed on the Mokattam. In all probability this fault belongs to the early NWbordering fault lines, one of which borders the morphological Mokattam on its NE side and shows extensive silifications belonging to the Gebel Ahmar cycle of post-volcanic activity. These two faults, the NE-one, which is clearly visible and the inferred NW-fault proved by the fact mentioned in this chapter, therefore create the « horstblock-morphology» of the Mokattam. This is rather important since such a fault line has not been proved so-far. This contribution however small gives some, right to the discussion whether the Nile Valley is a graben valley or not. Since, in our case, over a distance of few kilometers, between this mokattam fault in the East and the huge Delta-fault East of the Pyramid area in the West (See N. Azer, Plate VII), the Nile valley is actually a portion of a graben. This graben, however, does hardly extend towards the southern projection of the present day Nile valley but it splinters up and turns E. in the area between Maadi and Wadi Hof.

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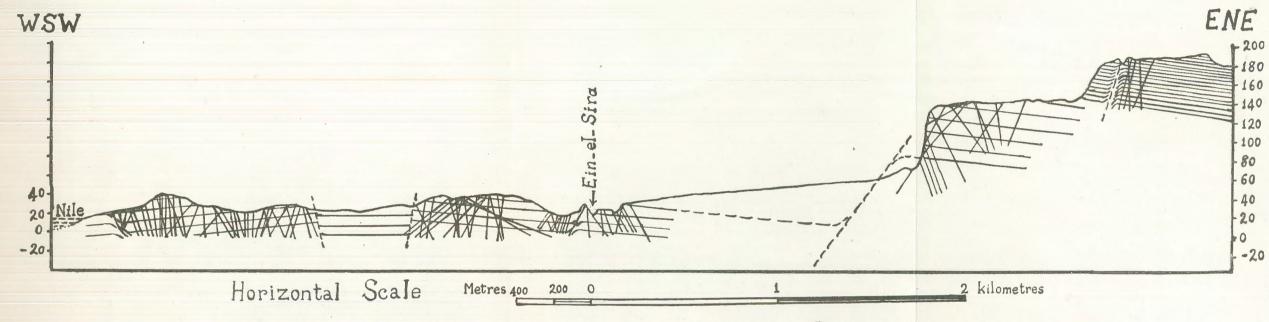
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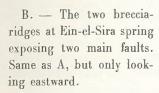
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Profile Section through Lower Quarries (Ein-el-Sira) and Mokattam-scarp.



A. — General view of Einel-Sira faults-breccia (left behind by the quarries) looking N. At the far background there is the Mokattam scarp (G. El-Gioushy) with its Lower and Upper Mokattam.







C. — Crushed zone along the main fault just at Einel-Sira, spring.

# CONSIDÉRATIONS

SUR LA

# STRUCTURE CÉPHALIQUE DES POPULATIONS DU DISTRICT OCCIDENTAL D'ÉGYPTE

PAR

ROBERT-P. CHARLES

#### AVANT-PROPOS

Nous consacrant depuis 12 ans à l'étude des populations anciennes du Bassin Méditerranéen, il ne nous avait pas été donné jusqu'ici d'entreprendre des recherches sur les sujets vivants. Nos travaux, venant à la suite de ceux de F. Falkenburger, avaient abouti à l'introduction d'un nouveau système de classification des types humains (1), fondé sur la structure du massif facial et non plus sur les proportions de la boîte crânienne, ou des considérations aussi subjectives que le degré de pigmentation, comme cela avait été fait jusque là, et l'est encore trop souvent. De l'état d'avancement des recherches sur la structure squelettique et du statisme des méthodes encore utilisées pour l'étude des populations vivantes, il s'ensuivait une telle divergence que l'on aboutissait à un véritable divorce entre les conclusions auxquelles on

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<sup>(1)</sup> Cf. bibliographie in Robert-P. Charles. Contribution à l'Anthropologie de l'Egypte ancienne. Bull. Soc. de Géogr. d'Egypte, t. XXXIV, 1961, p. 167, note 1, et p. 168, note 1 à 4.

R.-P. CHARLES, Proposition d'une méthode pratique pour la détermination des types crâniens - C. R. Séances Acad. Sc., t. 256, 1963, pp. 1355-58.

pouvait parvenir. Seule jusqu'ici l'école polonaise, à laquelle il convient de rendre particulièrement hommage, s'est efforcée d'établir un système de classification qui serait valable à la fois pour les squelettes et pour les sujets vivants. Depuis longtemps, nous envisagions d'adapter aux recherches sur le vivant le système de classification que nous avons établi en suivant la méthode de Falkenburger. Malheureusement, n'ayant pas la possibilité de procéder nous-mêmes à une enquête anthropométrique sur une grande échelle, nous devions nous contenter d'utiliser les données déjà anciennes, publiées par les auteurs; or les documents 'publiés comportaient souvent des tableaux de mensurations incomplets, ou des imprécisions sur les techniques anthropométriques, rendant très délicate l'interprétation des indices ainsi établis.

La publication des documents recueillis par l'expédition anthropologique égypto-polonaise dans le district occidental d'Egypte (1), en livrant au public des résultats dont la rigueur scientifique est garantie par la participation de savants de renommée mondiale tels que les Professeurs Ahmed Batrawi et Ali Hassan, du côté de l'Egypte, et les Professeurs E. Stołyhwo, T. Dzierżykray-Rogalski, S. Górny, I. Michalski, et A. Wierciński, du côté de la Pologne, vient de nous fournir les moyens d'entreprendre ce travail que nous leur dédions en hommage.

# EXPOSÉ DE LA MÉTHODE

La documentation qui vient d'être publiée porte sur plusieurs milliers de sujets parmi lesquels un très grand nombre d'enfants; chez ces derniers, le massif facial étant incomplètement développé, nos résultats auraient pu être faussés par l'utilisation d'indices dont la valeur diffèrerait sensiblement de ce qu'elle pourrait être chez le sujet devenu adulte. Nous avons donc éliminé de la série tous les sujets ayant moins de 14 ans, et conservé ainsi une série d'étude comprenant 820 sujets. Par ailleurs, nous avons quelque peu modifié la sériation proposée,

en ne considérant comme adultes que les sujets âgés d'au moins 21 ans; nous avons classé sous la rubrique «adolescents» les sujets âgés de 18 à 20 ans; nous avons enfin considéré comme «enfants», filles ou garçons, les sujets âgés de 14 à 17 ans. Quant à l'indication de l'origine des sujets, nous avons respecté la proposition des auteurs (1), conformément à la nomenclature suivante:

Autochtones (full-natives) : sujets dont les deux parents sont originaires de la même localité que la localité où l'enquête s'est faite.

Semi-autochtones (half-natives): sujets dont un seul ou les deux parents sont originaires d'une ville du district occidental autre que celle où l'enquête s'est faite.

Non-autochtones (strangers): sujets dont un seul ou les deux parents sont originaires d'une région d'Egypte autre que le district occidental.

Pour chaque sujet, nous avons pris en considération les indices classiques, calculés et publiés par les auteurs de l'enquête, en y ajoutant, l'indice céphalo-facial transversal, calculé d'après les normes classiques, et en l'interprétant comme suit; le sujet est dit:

Ultramicropside, lorsque l'indice est au plus égal à 83,9
Hypermicropside, lorsque l'indice vaut de 84,0 à 86,9
Micropside — — 87,0 à 89,9
Mésopside — — 90,0 à 92,9
Macropside — — 93,0 à 95,9
Hypermacropside — — 96,0 à 98,9
Ultramacropside, lorsque l'indice est au moins égal à 99,0

Pour l'interprétation du développement du massif facial par rapport à l'ensemble de la tête, nous avons introduit deux nouveaux indices, homologues de ceux dont nous avons récemment proposé l'introduction pour l'étude du crâne (2).

<sup>(1)</sup> Publications of the joint Arabic-Polish Anthropological Expedition 1958-1959.

Part I, Anthropological Measurements of Population in the United Arab Republic (Egypt-West Desert). Varsovie-Poznan, 1961.

<sup>(1)</sup> *Ibid.*, p. xxIII.

<sup>(3)</sup> Robert-P. Charles. Proposition de nouveaux indices rendant compte du développement du massif facial par rapport à l'ensemble du crâne. Compte Rendu des séances de l'Acad. des Sciences, t. 255, 1962, pp. 1994-96.

Les formules de ces indices sont les suivantes :

Indice céphalo-facial physionomique =  $\frac{\text{hauteur nasion-gnathion} \times 100}{\text{largeur maximum de la tête}}$ 

Cet indice rend compte du développement en hauteur du visage, d'après l'échelle des valeurs suivantes ; le sujet est dit :

hyperchamæprosope,	lorsque	l'indice	est au p	lus éga	l à	74,9
chamæprosope		-	vaut de	0		
métrioprosope		_		80,0	à.	83,5
hypsiprosope	_			83,6		
hyperhypsiprosope, lo	rsque l'i	ndice est	au moin	s égai	à	88,5

Indice céphalo-facial structural =  $\frac{\text{hauteur nasion-stomion} \times 100}{\text{largeur maximum de la tête}}$ 

Cet indice rend compte du développement en hauteur de la seule partie supérieure du visage, d'après l'échelle des valeurs suivantes; le sujet est dit:

hyperchamæène,	lorsque	l'indice	est au plus	s égal	à	44,5
chamæène,	-		vaut de	44,6	à	49,4
métriène				49,5	à	54,0
hypsiène	_			54,1	à	57,8
hyperhypsiène,	-		est au moin	s égal	à	57.9

La hauteur du menton étant une mesure variable selon le sexe, et d'un sujet à l'autre, au sein d'un même groupe, l'indice céphalo-facial physionomique ne rend compte du groupe structural qu'avec une certaine approximation; au contraire, la hauteur de la partie supérieure du visage étant étroitement liée à la hauteur nasion-prosthion du crâne, et cette dernière, en forte corrélation avec la hauteur basilo-bregmatique du crâne ainsi que l'a démontré Falkenburger (1), l'indice céphalo-facial structural oriente la détermination du groupe structural auquel appartient le sujet, avec une grande précision.

Nous rappellerons pour mémoire l'interprétation des indices classiques.

# Indice facial total. Le sujet est dit :

hypereuryprosope,	lorsque	l'indic	e est	au	plus égal	à	78,9
euryprosope	_	-	vaut	de	79,0	à	83,9
mésoprosope					84,0	à	87,9
leptoprosope	_	_	_		88,0	à	92,9
hyperleptoprosope,	lorsque	l'indice	e est a	ur	noins égal	à	93,0

# Indice facial supérieur. Le sujet est dit :

hypereuryène,	lorsque	l'indice	est au plu	s égal	à	46,9
euryène		_	vaut de	47,0	à	51,9
mésène		_	_	52,0	à	56,9
leptène		_	_	57,0	à	61,9
hyperleptène,	lorsque	l'indice e	est au moin	s égal	à	62,0

## Indice nasal. Le sujet est dit :

hyperleptorhinien	lorsque	l'indice	est au p	olus égal	à	54,9
leptorhinien	_		vaut de	55,0	à	69,9
mésorhinien			_	70,0	à	84,9
platyrhinien		_	_	85,0	à	99,9
hyperplatyrhinien,	lorsque	l'indice	est au m	oins égal	à	100,0.

Nous n'avons que faiblement tenu compte des chiffres donnés par le calcul des indices de hauteur de la boîte crânienne; en effet, sur le vivant il est impossible d'apprécier la hauteur basilo-bregmatique et même de déterminer l'emplacement du bregma. On doit donc se contenter d'apprécier la différence de niveau entre le tragion gauche et le faux-vertex (méthode préconisée par R. Martin) ou entre le tragion gauche et le vertex (méthode suivie par les auteurs de l'enquête); outre que le vertex et le faux-vertex ne sont pas des points anatomiquement significatifs, leur détermination exige l'orientation de la tête du sujet par rapport au plan de Francfort, ce qu'il est impossible de réaliser avec exactitude. La technique opérationnelle se heurte ainsi à divers aléas qui entachent cette mesure de subjectivité.

<sup>(1)</sup> Frédéric Falkenburger. Etude diagraphique sur la morphologie du crâne. L'Anthropologie, t. 49, 1940, pp. 657-58.

L'étude des sujets vivants présente de plus le grave défaut de ne permettre aucune opération permettant d'apprécier objectivement le prognathisme, dans l'impossibilité où l'on se trouve de mesurer les distances nasion-basion et prosthion-basion, ainsi que de mesurer les angles d'inclinaison des lignes nasion-nasospinal, nasion-prosthion, et nasospinal-prosthion sur le plan de Francfort. Pour pallier dans une certaine mesure à cet inconvénient, compte tenu que la surface de la partie supérieure de la face est plus grande chez un sujet prognathe que chez un sujet orthognathe, nous avons introduit la notion de module facial, avec les définitions suivantes.

Le module facial total s'obtient en faisant le produit de la largeur bijugale par la hauteur nasion-gnathion; il représente en cm<sup>2</sup> la surface du rectangle dans lequel on peut inscrire la totalité de la face.

Le module facial supérieur s'obtient en faisant le produit de la largeur bijugale par la hauteur nasion-stomion; il représente en cm<sup>2</sup> la surface du rectangle dans lequel on peut inscrire la partie supérieure de la face.

En fin d'analyse, la confrontation des divers documents et l'étude statistique des indices, nous a permis d'établir la détermination du groupe de chaque sujet en utilisant la clef dichotomique suivante :

Ire opération. Considérer l'indice céphalo-facial structural :

- si l'indice est au plus égal à 49,5 le sujet appartient au GROUPE A;
- si l'indice vaut de 49,5 à 54,1 passer à la II° opération;
- si l'indice est au moins égal à 54,1 passer directement à la IVe opération.

IIº opération. Le sujet est métriène; considérer l'indice nasal:

- si l'indice est au plus égal à 69,9 le sujet appartient au GROUPE AC;
- si l'indice vaut de 70,0 à 84,9 passer à la IIIº opération;
- si l'indice est au moins égal à 85,0 le sujet appartient au GROUPE B.

IIIº opération. Le sujet est métriène et mésorhinien ; considérer l'indice céphalo-facial physionomique :

si l'indice est au plus égal à 79,9 le sujet appartient au GROUPE AB; si l'indice est au moins égal à 80,0 le sujet appartient au GROUPE BC.

IVº OPÉRATION. Le sujet est hypsiène; considérer l'indice nasal:

- si l'indice est au moins égal à 85,0 le sujet appartient au sous-groupe (ABC)-B du groupe B;
- si l'indice est au plus égal à 84,9 considérer le module facial supérieur :

## 1°, chez les hommes:

si le module facial supérieur est au moins égal à 105, le sujet appartient au groupe ABC;

si le module facial supérieur est au plus égal à 105, passer à la V° opération.

## 2°, chez les femmes:

si le module facial supérieur est au moins égal à 100, le sujet appartient au groupe ABC;

si le module facial supérieur est au plus égal à 99,9 passer à la V° opération.

V° orération. Le sujet est hypsiène, et le module facial supérieur est inférieur à 105 chez les hommes ou à 100 chez les femmes; considérer l'indice nasal:

- si l'indice est au plus égal à 69,9 le sujet appartient au sous-groupe (ABC)-AC du groupe AC;
- si l'indice est au moins égal à 70,0 le sujet appartient au sous-groupe (ABC)-BC du groupe BC.

On voit que d'après cette clef, on ne parvient pas à déterminer un sujet du groupe C; ces derniers sont en effet très difficiles à différencier de ceux du groupe ABC sur de simples données métriques en l'absence de critères d'évaluation du prognathisme. Dans le cas présent toutefois, nous savons que le groupe C n'est représenté en Egypte que chez des sujets d'origine étrangère (1); on peut espérer en trouver dans les villes, leur présence parmi des populations rurales serait surprenante; nous considérerons donc que les sujets hypsiènes à face grande et nez moyen ou mince, appartiennent tous au groupe ABC.

<sup>(1)</sup> Robert-P. Charles, op. cit., 1961, pp. 218-19.

# ÉTUDE SYSTÉMATIQUE DES GROUPES

Groupe ABC: Paléo-kamitique

Diagnose. Les sujets de ce groupe se caractérisent par leurs grandes dimensions céphaliques. La boîte crânienne est vaste, à la fois haute et large, ceci allant en s'accusant lorsque la longueur décroît; les dolichocéphales prédominent, bien que les mésocéphales soient aussi assez nombreux, en revanche les brachycéphales sont rares. Le massif facial est volumineux par définition, puisque nous avons pris comme critère le module facial supérieur, qui doit être égal ou supérieur à 105 chez les hommes et à 100 chez les femmes; les grandes dimensions tendent à rendre insensible le prognathisme, valeur malheureusement non indexable sur les sujets vivants, mais nous savons, d'après l'étude des crânes, que l'indice gnathique de Flower est toujours supérieur à 100 chez les sujets du groupe paléo-kamitique, ce qui permet de les différencier des sujets du groupe C, notamment des sujets des types, anatolo-pontique et anatolien, qui ont aussi un massif facial très vaste, mais avec un indice gnathique de Flower inférieur à 100.

La face est moyenne à large, haute par rapport à l'ensemble du crâne, et dans ses proportions propres; le nez, grand et charnu, est étroit, ou même très étroit, dans ses proportions en raison du grand développement en hauteur. Les yeux présentent souvent un fort repli palpébral supérieur, recouvrant parfois la presque totalité du tarse. La bouche est grande avec des lèvres charnues mais non éversées. Le menton est généralement bien développé. L'ensemble du visage présente un aspect massif, aux formes pleines laissant pressentir une robuste musculature.

Le groupe ABC présente une telle homogénéité que nous n'avons pas jugé nécessaire de désigner par un qualificatif particulier chacun des types définis par la valeur de l'indice céphalique :

dolichocéphale, si l'indice est au plus égal à 75,9; mésocéphale, si l'indice vaut de 76,0 à 80,9; brachycéphale, si l'indice est au moins égal à 81,0.

DISTRIBUTION DES SUJETS. Nous avons classé dans le groupe ABC, 209 sujets masculins se répartissant comme suit :

MARSA MATROUH. Autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphales, 30 sujets: n° 2, 4, 13, 16, 17, 18, 27, 30, 31, 32, 33, 40, 43, 44, 47, 51, 55, 56, 61, 70, 76, 79, 81, 82, 83, 85, 86, 89, 99, 102;

Mésocéphales, 26 sujets: n° 3, 5, 7, 11, 14, 15, 24, 26, 29, 34, 35, 41, 50, 52, 53, 54, 57, 62, 67, 74, 75, 80, 87, 92, 97, 108;

Brachycéphales, 6 sujets : n° 65, 77, 93, 98, 100, 101.

Autochtones, adolescents:

Dolichocéphales, 2 sujets : man n° 105, boy n° 2; Mésocéphales, 2 sujets : boys n° 4, 107.

Autochtones, garçons:

Dolichocéphales, 3 sujets: boys n° 55, 93, 101; Mésocéphales, 4 sujets: boys n° 31, 53, 57, 64; Brachycéphale, 1 sujet: boy n° 97.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphales, 2 sujets : n° 111, 117; Mésocéphales, 7 sujets : n° 110, 113, 114, 118, 119, 121, 124.

Semi-autochtone, adolescent:

Dolichocéphale, 1 sujet : nº 129.

Semi-autochtones, garçons:

Dolichocéphales, 2 sujets : boys n° 67, 71; Mésocéphale, 1 sujet : boy n° 69.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphales, 30 sujets: n° 120, 134, 135, 136, 140, 146, 150, 151, 152, 159, 162, 166, 170, 176, 177, 181, 186, 190,

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191, 192, 195, 196, 197, 207, 211, 212, 215, 220, 223, 238;
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Mésocéphales, 22 sujets : n° 137, 138, 142, 143, 144, 147, 149, 153, 155, 156, 157, 163, 171, 173, 174, 175, 179, 198, 205, 226, 239;

Brachycéphales, 2 sujets : nº 168, 214.

Non-autochtones, adolescents:

Dolichocéphales, 4 sujets: men n° 234, 235, 237; boy n° 18; Mésocéphales, 4 sujets: man n° 229; boys n° 8, 10, 20; Brachycéphales, 2 sujets: men n° 227, 228.

Non-autochtones, garçons:

Dolichocéphales, 7 sujets : boys n° 24, 75, 80, 82, 128, 129, 141; Mésocéphales, 3 sujets : boys n° 47, 48, 76.

SIDI BARRANY. Autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphales, 6 sujets : n° 12, 17, 23, 24, 25, 29; Mésocéphales, 3 sujets : n° 7, 11, 18.

Semi-autochtone, adulte:

Mésocéphale, 1 sujet : n° 31.

Semi-autochtone, adolescent:

Mésocéphale, 1 sujet : boy n° 47.

Non-autochtone, adulte:

Dolichocéphale, 1 sujet : n° 35.

Solloum. Autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphales, 2 sujets : n° 1, 7; Mésocéphales, 3 sujets : n° 3, 20, 21.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphale, 1 sujet : n° 35; Mésocéphale, 1 sujet : n° 40. SIWAH. Autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphales, 16 sujets: n° 1, 3, 4, 5, 11, 13, 16, 18, 19, 21, 28, 29, 36, 37, 40, 42;

Mésocéphales, 2 sujets: n° 24, 27.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphale, 1 sujet : n° 50; Brachycéphale, 1 sujet : n° 51.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphales, 2 sujets : n° 54, 63; Mésocéphales, 7 sujets : n° 55, 58, 59, 60, 62, 69, 70.

Appartiennent également au groupe ABC, 69 sujets féminins se répartissant comme suit :

Marsa Matroun. Autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphales, 4 sujets : n° 3, 25, 28, 38; Mésocéphales, 9 sujets : n° 1, 4, 9, 14, 17, 24, 27, 42, 45.

Autochtone, adolescent:

Brachycéphale, 1 sujet : n° 50.

Autochtones, filles:

Mésocéphales, 2 sujets : girls n° 15, 22; Brachycéphale, 1 sujet : girl n° 10.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphales, 2 sujets : n° 55, 56; Mésocéphales, 2 sujets : n° 58, 60.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphales, 9 sujets : n° 64, 68, 72, 73, 74, 81, 85, 91, 96; Mésocéphales, 6 sujets : n° 65, 89, 97, 100, 101, 107.

Non-autochtones, adolescents:

Dolichocéphales, 2 sujets : woman n° 112, girl n° 1;

Mésocéphale, 1 sujet : girl n° 3.

Non-autochtones, filles:

Mésocéphales, 2 sujets : girls nº 21, 24.

Sidi Barrany. Autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphales, 2 sujets : nº 15, 26;

Mésocéphales, 5 sujets: n° 3, 8, 20, 31, 39;

Brachycéphale, 1 sujet : n° 42.

Autochtone, adolescent:

Brachycéphale, 1 sujet : n° 51.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphale, 1 sujet : nº 66;

Mésocéphales, 2 sujets : nº 60, 68.

Non-autochtone, adulte:

Mésocéphale, 1 sujet : n° 75.

Solloum, autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphales, 2 sujets : n° 6, 16;

Mésocéphales, 9 sujets: n° 2, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14;

Brachycéphale, 1 sujet : n° 1.

Autochtone, fille:

Dolichocéphale, 1 sujet : girl n° 24.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Dolichocéphale, 1 sujet : n° 20;

Mésocéphale, 1 sujet : nº 21.

Non-autochtone, adulte:

Dolichocéphale, 1 sujet : nº 23.

CARACTÈRES INDEXABLES. L'étude statistique nous a permis d'établir les caractères anthropométriques moyens du groupe paléo-kamitique, conformément au tableau suivant :

Indices (groupe ABC)	sujets masc. n = 209			fém. 69	Caractéristiques	
	m-	σ	m	σ		
céphalo-facial transversal	93,9 86 56,2 93,2	3,4 4,2 2 5,4	90,6 84 56 93,4	3,6 4,4 2,8 3,6	méso à macropside. hypsiprosope. hypsiène (par déf.). lepto à hyperlepto-	
— supérieurnasal	60,6 58,9	3,3 6,4	62 53,5	3,6	prosope. leptène. hyperlepto à lepto- rhinien.	

On voit que l'ensemble est d'une grande homogénéité; on notera simplement que les sujets féminins sont plus régulièrement mésopsides, d'où il découle que le visage et le nez sont un peu plus étroits que chez les hommes.

Nous considérons comme particulièrement caractéristiques du groupe ABC, le sujet masculin n° 33 de Marsa Matrouh (fig. 165) et le sujet féminin n° 1 de Marsa Matrouh (fig. W 60).

## Groupe AC: Sub-méditerranéen

Diagnose. Les sujets de ce groupe se caractérisent par l'harmonie de leurs proportions, qui font situer la valeur de la plupart des indices dans la classe moyenne; la boîte crânienne tend à devenir basse et étroite lorsque le sujet tend vers l'hyperdolichocéphalie, et au contraire, elle devient haute et large chez les sujets brachycéphales.

La face est moyenne à étroite, moyennement développée en hauteur, par définition, par rapport au crâne; elle est moyenne à étroite dans ses proportions. Le nez est fin, et souvent assez long, avec l'ensellure supra-nasale assez bien marquée en général. Les yeux présentent

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fréquemment un fort repli palpébral supérieur, recouvrant la presque totalité du tarse. La bouche est assez grande avec des lèvres charnues mais relativement minces. Le menton est généralement bien développé, mais point trop accusé. L'ensemble du visage est de forme ovale.

Distribution des sujets. Les sujets du groupe AC sont très répandus sur la rive africaine de la Méditerranée, ainsi que dans le Proche-Orient asiatique. Compte tenu du fait que les sujets d'Asie ont un visage en général plus étroit en valeur absolue, nous avons fait une distinction systématique entre les sujets d'affinité africaine, ayant un module facial supérieur ou égal à 100 chez les hommes et à 95 chez les femmes, et les sujets d'affinité asiatique, ayant un module facial supérieur ou inférieur à ces même chiffres, cette distinction ne préjugeant nullement des origines ethniques des sujets eux-mêmes, mais tendant simplement à mettre en évidence des caractères ancestraux peut-être fort lointains.

Les sujets du sous-groupe africain se distribuent en trois classes ; d'après la valeur de l'indice céphalique :

Type kamitique, si l'indice est au plus égal à 75,4 Type libyco-berbère, si l'indice vaut de 75,5 à 81,4 Type berbéro-tellien, si l'indice est au moins égal à 81,5.

Nous avons ainsi sélectionné 60 sujets masculins se répartissant comme suit :

Marsa Matroun. Autochtones, adultes:

Kamitiques, 4 sujets: n° 1, 21, 36, 66, 69; Libyco-berbères; 10 sujets: n° 8, 10, 19, 28, 37, 60, 63, 71, 73, 96; Berbéro-telliens, 3 sujets: n° 42, 84, 94.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Kamitique, 1 sujet : n° 128; Libyco-berbère, 1 sujet : n° 122; Berbéro-tellien, 1 sujet : n° 112.

Semi-autochtone, adolescent:

Libyco-berbère, 1 sujet : boy n° 6.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Kamitiques, 3 sujets: n° 130, 182, 193; Libyco-berbères, 10 sujets: n° 131, 145, 154, 169, 178, 189, 202, 204, 209, 221;

Berbéro-telliens, 3 sujets : n° 187, 199, 200.

Non-autochtones, adolescents:

Kamitique, 1 sujet : boy n° 11; Libyco-berbère, 4 sujets : boys n° 12, 13, 14, 19.

SIDI BARRANY. Autochtones, adultes:

Kamitiques, 2 sujets : n° 4, 6; Libyco-berbères, 6 sujets : n° 5, 10, 13, 16, 20, 26; Berbéro-tellien, 1 sujet : n° 15.

Autochtone, adolescent:

Libyco-berbère, 1 sujet : boy n° 36.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Kamitique, 1 sujet : n° 32; Libyco-berbère, 1 sujet : n° 34.

Solloum. Autochtones, adultes:

Kamitique, 1 sujet : n° 22; Libyco-berbères, 2 sujets : n° 4, 13; Berbéro-telliens, 2 sujets : n° 14, 15.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Kamitique, 1 sujet : n° 38; Libyco-berbère, 1 sujet : n° 37.

SIWAH. Autochtones, adultes:

Kamitique, 1 sujet : n° 31; Libyco-berbère, 1 sujet : n° 71. Semi-autochtones, adultes: Libyco-berbères, 2 sujets: n° 26, 38.

Non-autochtone, adulte : Libyco-berbère, 1 sujet : n° 68.

Se classent aussi dans le sous-groupe africain AC, 32 sujets féminins se répartissant comme suit :

Marsa Matroum. Autochtones, adultes:

Kamitique, 1 sujet : nº 15;

Libyco-berbères, 7 sujets: n° 2, 5, 11, 20, 26, 30, 41;

Berbéro-tellien, 1 sujet : n° 21.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Libyco-berbères, 6 sujets: n° 76, 87, 108, 118, 124;

Non-autochtones, adolescents:

Berbéro-telliens, 2 sujets : girls n° 2, 7.

SIDI BARRANY. Autochtones, adultes :

Kamitique, 1 sujet : nº 1;

Libyco-berbères, 6 sujets: n° 2, 12, 22, 23, 35, 37;

Berbéro-tellien, 1 sujet : n° 21.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Kamitique, 1 sujet: n° 61;

Libyco-berbères, 4 sujets: n° 55, 57, 59, 69.

Solloum. Autochtones, adultes:

Libyco-berbères, 2 sujets: n° 3, 15.

Les sujets du sous-groupe asiatique se distribuent en trois classes, d'après la valeur de l'indice céphalique:

Type sud-oriental, si l'indice est au plus égal à 75,4 Type syro-cananéen, si l'indice vaut de 75,5 à 81,4 Type syro-arménoïde, si l'indice est au moins égal à 81,5. Nous avons sélectionné 36 sujets masculins se répartissant comme suit :

MARSA MATROUH. Autochtones, adultes:

Sud-oriental, 1 sujet: n° 22;

Syro-cananéens, 2 sujets: nº 68, 103.

Autochtone, adolescent:

Syro-cananéen, 1 sujet : boy n° 3.

Semi-autochtone, adulte:

Syro-cananéen, 1 sujet : nº 126.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Sud-orientaux, 2 sujets: nº 206, 208;

Syro-cananéens, 3 sujets: n° 216, 218, 236.

Non-autochtones, adolescents:

Sud-oriental, 1 sujet: n° 21;

Syro-cananéens, 2 sujets: men nº 9, 16.

SIDI-BARRANY. Autochtones, adultes:

Syro-cananéens, 2 sujets: nº 22, 28.

Solloum. Autochtones, adultes:

Sud-orientaux, 2 sujets: nº 16, 18;

Syro-cananéens, 4 sujets: nº 6, 8, 9, 28.

Autochtone, adolescent:

Syro-cananéen, 1 sujet : man nº 46.

Semi-autochtone, adulte:

Syro-cananéen, 1 sujet : nº 41.

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SIWAH. Autochtones, adultes:

Sud-orientaux, 5 sujets: n° 7, 25, 41, 45, 65.

Non-autochtone, adulte:

Syro-arménoïde, 1 sujet : nº 64.

Nous avons également classé dans le sous-groupe asiatique AC, 55 sujets féminins se répartissant comme suit :

Marsa Matroun. Autochtones, adultes:

Sud-oriental, 1 sujet: n° 31;

Syro-cananéens, 7 sujets: n° 6, 7, 12, 19, 33, 35, 36, 44;

Syro-arménoïde, 1 sujet : nº 10.

Autochtones, adolescents:

Sud-oriental, 1 sujet: woman nº 49;

Syro-cananéens, 2 sujets: women n° 51, 52.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Syro-cananéen, 1 sujet : nº 61;

Syro-arménoïde, 1 sujet : n° 59.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Sud-orientaux, 13 sujets: n° 69, 70, 71, 78, 80, 83, 86, 88, 92,

94, 104, 105, 109;

Syro-cananéens, 4 sujets: nº 66, 67, 99, 103.

Non-autochtones, adolescents:

Syro-cananéens, 2 sujets: women n° 113, 116.

Sidi Barrany. Autochtones, adultes:

Sud-orientaux, 3 sujets: nº 11, 32, 48;

Syro-cananéens, 3 sujets: nº 1, 4, 41;

Syro-arménoïdes, 2 sujets : n° 30, 44.

Autochtones, adolescents:

Syro-cananéen, 1 sujet : woman nº 49;

Syro-arménoïde, 1 sujet : woman n° 50.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Syro-cananéens, 5 sujets: n° 52, 62, 63, 72, 73.

Solloum. Autochtone, adulte:

Sud-oriental, 1 sujet: nº 4.

Non-autochtone, adulte:

Syro-cananéen, 1 sujet : nº 22.

SIWAH. Autochtones, adultes:

Sud-orientaux, 3 sujets: nº 8, 11, 12.

Semi-autochtone, adulte:

Syro-arménoïde, 1 sujet : nº 13.

Enfin, nous devons mentionner, sans ségrégation typologique, les sujets de moins de 18 ans, le calcul du module facial supérieur étant en effet sans signification chez des sujets dont le massif facial n'a pas achevé son développement. Pour désigner les trois classes se distinguant par la valeur de l'indice céphalique, nous avons conservé les qualificatifs habituels, bien que les limites soient un peu différentes des valeurs moyennes communéments admises :

Dolichocéphale, si l'indice est au plus égal à 75,4 Mésocéphale, si l'indice vaut de 75,5 à 81,4 Brachycéphale, si l'indice est au moins égal à 81,5.

GARÇONS (59 sujets):

Marsa Matroun. Autochtones:

Dolichocéphales, 9 sujets : boys n° 56, 58, 89, 91, 102, 104, 106, 108, 113;

Mésocéphales, 12 sujets: boys n° 27, 29, 30, 52, 54, 59, 61, 92, 100, 103, 112, 114;

Brachycéphales, 2 sujets : boys n° 22, 95.

Semi-autochtones:

Dolichocéphales, 3 sujets: boys nº 33, 110, 115;

Mésocéphales, 5 sujets : boys nº 34, 36, 70, 109, 116.

Non-autochtones:

Dolichocéphales, 5 sujets: boys nº 39, 43, 44, 86, 118;

Mésocéphales, 16 sujets: boys n° 25, 32, 37, 38, 46, 74, 77, 84,

88, 122, 127, 132, 136, 137, 145, 147;

Brachycéphales, 3 sujets : boys nº 23, 26, 131.

Solloum. Autochtones:

Mésocéphales, 2 sujets : boys n° 47, 50.

Semi-autochtone:

Mésocéphale, 1 sujet : boy n° 65.

SIWAH. Autochtone:

Dolichocéphale, 1 sujet : boy n° 79.

Filles (13 sujets):

Marsa Matroun. Autochtone:

Mésocéphale, 1 sujet : girl n° 9.

Non-autochtones:

Dolichocéphale, 1 sujet : girl n° 28;

Mésocéphales, 5 sujets : girls n° 5, 16, 17, 19, 27;

Brachycéphales, 2 sujets : girls nº 18, 33.

Solloum. Non-autochtone:

Dolichocéphale, 1 sujet : girl nº 40.

SIWAH. Autochtones:

Dolichocéphale, 1 sujet : girl n° 17; Mésocéphales, 2 sujets : girls n° 15, 16.

CARACTÈRES INDEXABLES. L'étude statistique nous à permis d'établir les caractères anthropométriques moyens du groupe sub-méditerranéen, conformément au tableau suivant :

Indices (groupe AC)	sujets masc. n = 157		sujets n =		Caractéristiques	
	m	σ	m .	σ		
céphalo-facial transversal	89,8	4,4	89,2	4,2	micro à mésopside.	
- physionomique	79,6	4,4	80	3,8	chamæ à métriopro-	
					sope.	
structural	51,8	1,2	51,5	1,8	métriène (par déf.).	
facial total	88	4,2	87,6	4,4	méso à leptoprosope	
— supérieur	58	3	56,4	3,4	mésène à leptène.	
nasal	63	3,7	61,4	6,4	leptorhinien (par définition).	

L'ensemble est d'une grande homogénéité : nous noterons simplement que les femmes présentent un visage régulièrement plus étroit.

Nous considérons comme particulièrement caractéristiques du groupe AC, le sujet masculin n° 187 de Marsa Matrouh (fig. 120) et le sujet féminin n° 1 de Sidi Barrany (fig. W 29) pour le sous-groupe africain, le sujet masculin n° 22 de Sidi Barrany (fig. 40) et le sujet féminin n° 51 de Marsa Matrouh pour le sous-groupe asiatique.

# Sous-groupe (ABC)-AC variété sub-anatolienne du sous-groupe sub-méditerranéen

Diagnose. Les sujets de cette variété se caractérisent par l'étroitesse de la tête, ce qui fait que, malgré des dimensions relativement faibles en valeur absolue, la plupart des indices se situent dans la classe élevée. La voûte crânienne est haute et étroite, surtout chez les sujets méso et brachycéphales; chez les dolichocéphales, elle est plutôt moyenne mais très étroite.

La face est étroite en valeur absolue, mais la boîte crânienne étant elle-même étroite, l'indice céphalo-facial transversal a fréquemment une valeur élevée. La face est allongée par rapport au crâne et dans ses proportions, mais présente un faible développement en surface, le module facial supérieur étant inférieur à 105 chez les hommes et à 100 chez les femmes. Le nez, grand et fin, est souvent un peu busqué; l'ensellure supra-nasale est généralement moins bien marquée que chez les sujets du groupe principal AC. Les yeux portent souvent un fort repli palpébral supérieur, mais celui-ci laisse libre la plus grande partie du tarse. La bouche est grande avec les lèvres en général assez minces. Le menton, normalement développé, ne présente pas de caractères particuliers. L'ensemble du visage est de forme allongée avec contour général sub-anguleux.

Distribution des sujets. Les sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-AC se distribuent en trois classes, d'après la valeur de l'indice céphalique :

Type nord-syrien, si l'indice est au plus égal à 75,4 Type cilicien, si l'indice vaut de 75,5 à 81,4 Type arménoïde, si l'indice est au moins égal à 81,5.

Nous avons déterminé 46 sujets masculins se répartissant comme suit :

MARSA MATROUH. Autochtones, adultes:

Nord-syriens, 6 sujets: n° 9, 20, 25, 38, 49, 90; Ciliciens, 6 sujets: n° 6, 45, 58, 72, 88, 91.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Nord-syriens, 2 sujets: no 109, 116.

Semi-autochtones, garçons:

Nord-syriens, 2 sujets: boys n° 35, 111.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Nord-syriens, 4 sujets: n° 133, 148, 161, 210; Ciliciens, 6 sujets: n° 139, 164, 167, 201, 222, 232.

Non-autochtones, adolescents:

Ciliciens, 2 sujets: men nº 230, 231.

Non-autochtone, garçon:

Arménoïde, 1 sujet : boy n° 40.

SIDI BARRANY. Autochtones, adultes:

Cilicien, 1 sujet: nº 8;

Arménoïdes, 2 sujets : nº 19, 21.

Autochtone, garçon:

Nord-syrien, 1 sujet : boy n° 39.

Solloum. Autochtones, adultes:

Ciliciens, 2 sujets: n° 26, 31.

SIWAH. Autochtones, adultes:

Nord-syriens, 7 sujets: n° 6, 10, 12, 22, 23, 44, 49.

Autochtone, adolescent:

Nord-syrien, 1 sujet: boy no 74.

Autochtones, garçons:

Nord-syriens, 2 sujets: boys no 75, 80.

Non-autochtone, adulte:

Nord-syrien, 1 sujet: n° 73.

On doit aussi classer dans le sous-groupe (ABC)-AC, 53 sujets féminins se répartissant comme suit :

MARSA MATROUH. Autochtones, adultes:

Nord-syrien, 1 sujet: n° 43;

Ciliciens, 2 sujets: n° 23, 40.

Autochtones, adolescents:

Nord-syriens, 2 sujets: women nº 46, 48.

Autochtones, filles:

Nord-syriens, 2 sujets: girls nº 4, 8.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Nord-syriens, 2 sujets: n° 53, 54.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Nord-syriens, 4 sujets: n° 77, 79, 90, 110;

Ciliciens, 7 sujets: n° 75, 82, 84, 102, 106, 121, 122.

Non-autochtones, adolescents:

Nord-syrien, 1 sujet :  $woman n^{\circ} 115$ ;

Cilicien, 1 sujet: woman nº 117.

Non-autochtones, filles:

Nord-syriens, 2 sujets: girls n° 6, 11;

Ciliciens, 2 sujets: girls nº 12, 29.

Sidi Barrany. Autochtones, adultes:

Nord-syriens, 6 sujets: n° 27, 29, 33, 36, 40, 45;

Ciliciens, 7 sujets: n° 6, 13, 16, 19, 24, 25, 28.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Nord-syriens, 2 sujets: n° 53, 54;

Ciliciens, 2 sujets: nº 58, 64.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Nord-syriens, 2 sujets: n° 74, 76.

Solloum. Autochtones, adultes:

Nord-syriens, 3 sujets: n° 12, 18, 19.

Autochtone, adolescent:

Nord-syrien, 1 sujet: woman n° 17.

SIWAH. Autochtones, adultes:

Nord-syriens, sujets: n° 3, 4, 9, 10.

Caractères indexables. L'étude statistique nous a permis d'établir les caractères anthropométriques moyens de la variété sub-anatolienne du groupe sub-méditerranéen, conformément au tableau ci-dessous :

Indices (s/groupe (ABC)-AC)	sujets masc. n = 46		$\begin{array}{c c} \text{sujets f\'em.} \\ \text{n} = 53 \end{array}$		Caractéristiques	
	$\mathbf{m}$ $\mathbf{\sigma}$ $\mathbf{m}$ $\mathbf{\sigma}$					
céphalo-facial transversal  — — physionomique  — — structural facial total  — supérieur nasal	93 85 54,5 92,6 59,2 60	4 3,8 3,1 4,8 3 5,4	90 84 54,2 91,7 60 59,5	3,2 4 3,6 4,5 3,6 6,1	méso à macropside. hypsiprosope. hypsiène (par déf.). leptoprosope. leptène. leptorhinien (par définition).	

L'ensemble est d'une grande homogénéité; il y a simplement lieu de noter que les femmes ont le visage plus étroit, d'où il s'ensuit un nez très mince. Le menton est généralement moins développé chez les femmes que chez les hommes; il s'ensuit que chez celles-ci, l'indice facial total est relativement plus faible, alors que l'indice facial supérieur est au contraire un peu plus fort à cause de l'étroitesse du visage.

Nous considérons comme particulièrement caractéristiques de la variété sub-anatolienne du groupe AC, le sujet masculin n° 25 de Marsa Matrouh (fig. 85) et le sujet féminin n° 82 de Marsa Matrouh (fig. W 67).

# Groupe A: Méditerranéen (cromagnoïde)

DIAGNOSE. Les sujets de ce groupe se caractérisent par le faible développement en hauteur des différentes parties de la tête. La voûte crânienne est basse et large, ceci d'autant plus que la valeur de l'indice céphalique sera plus élevée. La face est de faibles dimensions par rapport à la boîte crânienne, et de moyenne à large dans ses proportions; elle est toujours basse par rapport à l'ensemble de la tête, par définition, puisque nous avons pris comme critère de détermination de ce groupe, l'appartenance à la classe chamæène. Le nez est généralement étroit, mais par suite du faible développement en hauteur, la valeur de l'indice nasal croît; c'est alors qu'il y a lieu de faire une distinction entre le nez petit et bas des Méditerranéens, et le nez grand et large des Sahariens ou des Soudanais. Les yeux sont généralement fendus en amande, le sillon orbiculo-palpébral est bien marqué, et le repli supérieur laisse le tarse bien dégagé. La bouche est normalement développée, avec les lèvres charnues, quelquefois un peu épaisses, jamais éversées. Le menton est bien développé, mais point accusé. La forme générale du visage est celle d'un ovale régulier.

Distribution des sujets. Les sujets du groupe A se répartissent en trois classes (1), d'après la valeur de l'indice céphalique :

Type méditerranéen ancien, si l'indice est au plus égal à 76,9 Type alpino-méditerranéen, si l'indice vaut de 77,0 à 81,9 Type alpinoïde, si l'indice est au moins égal à 82,0.

Nous avons déterminé 75 sujets masculins ainsi répartis :

Marsa Matroun. Autochtones, adultes:

Alpino-méditerranéens, 2 sujets : nº 46, 106.

Autochtone, adolescent:

Alpino-méditerranéen, 1 sujet : boy n° 1.

Autochtones, garçons:

Méditerranéens anciens, 4 sujets : boys n° 90, 96, 98, 105; Alpino-méditerranéens, 4 sujets : boys n° 28, 63, 94, 99; Alpinoïde, 1 sujet : boy n° 51. Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Méditerranéens anciens, 3 sujets : n° 115, 123, 125.

Semi-autochtone, adolescent:

Méditerranéen ancien, 1 sujet : boy n° 7.

Semi-autochtone, garçon:

Méditerranéen ancien, 1 sujet : boy n° 68.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Méditerranéen ancien, 1 sujet : nº 141;

Alpino-méditerranéens, 2 sujets : nº 183, 240;

Alpinoïde, 1 sujet: nº 203.

Non-autochtones, adolescents:

Alpino-méditerranéens, 2 sujets : man n° 225, boy n° 17;

Alpinoïde, 1 sujet: man nº 233.

Non-autochtones, garçons:

Méditerranéens anciens, 6 sujets : boys n° 79, 117, 130, 134, 138, 146;

Alpino-méditerranéens, 17 sujets : boys n° 45, 65, 72, 81, 83, 87, 123, 125, 126, 133, 135, 139, 140, 142, 144, 148, 149.

SIDI BARRANY. Autochtones, adultes:

Alpino-méditerranéens, 2 sujets : n° 2, 9.

Autochtones, adolescents:

Alpino-méditerranéens, 3 sujets : man n° 27, boys n° 37, 38.

Semi-autochtone, adulte:

Méditerranéen ancien, 1 sujet : nº 33.

Solloum. Autochtones, adultes:

Méditerranéens anciens, 3 sujets : nº 24, 29, 48;

Alpino-méditerranéens, 7 sujets: n° 5, 10, 23, 25, 27, 32, 34;

Alpinoïdes, 2 sujets: n° 2, 12.

<sup>(1)</sup> Nous avons déjà étudié le groupe A d'après les restes osseux sur la rive européenne de la Méditerranée; cf. Robert-P. Charles. Le Peuplement de l'Europe méditerranéenne pendant les III° et II° Mill. av. J.-C. Bull. et Mém. Soc. d'Anthrop. de Paris (11° sér.) t. I, 1960, pp. 24-42.

Autochtone, garçon:

Alpino-méditerranéen, 1 sujet : boy n° 49.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Alpino-méditerranéen, 1 sujet : nº 45;

Alpinoïde, 1 sujet : nº 44.

SIWAH. Autochtones, adultes:

Méditerranéens anciens, 2 sujets : nº 9, 14.

Autochtone, garçon:

Méditerranéen ancien, 1 sujet : boy n° 218.

Non-autochtone, adulte:

Alpino-méditerranéen, 1 sujet : n° 67.

Non-autochtone, garçon:

Méditerranéen ancien, 1 sujet : boy n° 218.

Appartiennent également au groupe A, 41 sujets féminins se répartissant comme suit :

Marsa Matroun. Autochtones, adultes:

Méditerranéens anciens 3 sujets : n° 18, 22, 39;

Alpino-méditerranéens, 7 sujets: n° 8, 13, 16, 29, 32, 34, 37.

Autochtone, adolescent:

Alpinoïde, 1 sujet : woman n° 47.

Autochtone, fille:

Alpino-méditerranéen, 1 sujet : girl n° 14.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Alpino-méditerranéen, 1 sujet : n° 62;

Alpinoïde, 1 sujet: nº 57.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Méditerranéens anciens, 2 sujets : n° 63, 93;

Alpino-méditerranéen, 1 sujet : nº 125.

Non-autochtone, adolescent:

Alpino-méditerranéen, 1 sujet : n° 119.

Non-autochtones, filles:

Méditerranéen ancien, 1 sujet : girl n° 30;

Alpino-méditerranéens, 5 sujets: woman n° 20, girls n° 20, 25, 26, 31;

Alpinoïde, 1 sujet : girl nº 13.

SIDI BARRANY. Autochtones, adultes:

Méditerranéens anciens, 2 sujets : n° 67, 71;

Alpino-méditerranéens, 7 sujets : n° 5, 9, 14, 17, 18, 43, 46;

Alpinoïde, 1 sujet: n° 38.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Méditerranéens anciens, 2 sujets : nº 67, 71;

Alpino-méditerranéen, 1 sujet : nº 70;

Alpinoïdes, 2 sujets: nº 56, 65.

Non-autochtone, fille:

Alpinoïde, 1 sujet : girl nº 84.

Caractères indexables. L'étude statistique nous a permis d'établir les caractères anthropométriques moyens du groupe méditerranéen, conformément au tableau ci-dessous :

Indices (groupe A)	sujets n =		sujets n =	fém. 41	Caractéristiques
	m	σ	m	σ	
céphalo-facial transversal  — — physionomique  — structural	88,2 76 47,8	3,4 4 1,8	89,6 75 46,6	3,8 3,6 2,6	micro à mésopside. chamæprosope. chamæène (par déf.)
facial total	85,4 53,2 65,5	3 2,8 6	84 52,6 61,8	2,6 10,2	mésoprosope. mésène. leptorhinien.

On voit que l'ensemble présente une grande homogénéité; on notera simplement chez les femmes une légère tendance à un moindre développement en hauteur du visage, qui se répercute par une plus grande variabilité de l'indice nasal.

Nous considérons comme particulièrement caractéristiques du groupe méditerranéen, les sujets masculins de Marsa Matrouh n° 115 (fig. 74) et 203 (fig. 81), et les sujets féminins de Marsa Matrouh n° 32 (fig. W 34) et n° 37 (fig. W 36).

### Groupe AB: Nord-saharien

Diagnose. Les sujets de ce groupe se caractérisent par des proportions moyennes et un faciès sub-négroïde. La boîte crânienne est de hauteur moyenne, d'autant plus haute et large que l'indice céphalique sera plus élevé.

La face est moyenne par rapport au crâne et dans ses proportions, pour ce qui est de la partie supérieure de la face, alors que l'indice facial total tend vers les valeurs basses. L'étude des crânes met en évidence un léger prognathisme facial et un prognathisme alvéolaire très sensible; ces caractères ne sont malheureusement pas indexables sur les sujets vivants, mais sont néanmoins très nets en vue latérale. Le nez est moyen, en général assez court, avec le dos concave; de ce fait, l'ensellure supranasale est large et peu profonde. Les yeux sont généralement fendus en amande, avec le repli palpébral supérieur laissant le tarse bien dégagé. La bouche est, le plus souvent, grande, avec les lèvres, charnues et épaisses, pouvant être plus ou moins éversées. Le menton est arrondi. L'ensemble du visage a la forme d'un ovale plutôt large, avec des contours très atténués.

DISTRIBUTION DES SUJETS. Le sujets du groupe AB se distribuent en trois classes, d'après la valeur de l'indice céphalique :

Type nord-saharien, si l'indice est au plus égal à 75,9 Type saharien, si l'indice vaut de 76,0 à 80,9 Type saharien des Oasis, si l'indice est au moins égal à 81,0. Nous avons déterminé 12 sujets masculins se répartissant comme suit :

Marsa Matroun. Autochtone, garçon :

Nord-saharien, 1 sujet : boy nº 62.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Nord-sahariens, 2 sujets: nº 184, 188;

Saharien, 1 sujet: nº 224.

Non-autochtones, garçons:

Nord-sahariens, 5 sujets: boys n° 41, 73, 85, 121, 143.

SIDI BARRANY. Autochtone, adulte:

Saharien, 1 sujet : n° 3.

Semi-autochtone, adulte:

Nord-saharien, 1 sujet : n° 30.

SIWAH. Autochtone, adulte:

Saharien, 1 sujet: nº 8.

Nous avons également classé dans le groupe nord-saharien, 7 sujets féminins ainsi répartis :

Marsa Matroun. Non-autochtones, adultes:

Sahariens, 2 sujets: n° 95, 123.

Non-autochtone, adolescent:

Nord-saharien, 1 sujet : woman nº 114.

Non-autochtone, fille:

Saharien, 1 sujet : girl nº 32.

SIDI BARRANY. Autochtones, adultes:

Nord-saharien, 1 sujet: n° 7;

Saharien des Oasis, 1 sujet : n° 10.

SIWAH. Autochtone, adulte:

Nord-saharien, 1 sujet: n° 2.

Caractères indexables. Nous ne disposons pas, pour ce groupe, d'une série suffisante pour permettre une étude statistique; il est néanmoins possible d'indiquer les caractères anthropométriques de la majorité des sujets, en rassemblant les résultats dans le tableau suivant :

Indices (groupe AB)	sujets masc. n = 12	sujets fém. $n = 7$	Caractéristiques
céphalo-facial transversal	89-94	89-90	surtout mésopside.
- physionomique	77-78	77-78	chamæprosope (par définition).
— — structural	50-51	50-51	métriène (par déf.).
facial total	79-84	81-84	eury à mésoprosope.
- supérieur	52-55	54-55	mésène.
nasal	75-76	74-75	mésorhinien (par définition).

La détermination des sujets du groupe nord-saharien étant commandée par les valeurs de trois indices, l'ensemble présente une grande homogénéité malgré le petit nombre de chiffres dont nous avons pu disposer. On devra simplement noter que les femmes ont le visage généralement plus étroit, caractère qui a ses incidences sur la morphologie du nez.

Nous considérons comme particulièrement caractéristiques du groupe nord-saharien, le sujet masculin n° 3 de Sidi Barrany (fig. 24) et le sujet féminin n° 95 de Marsa Matrouh (fig. W 62).

# Groupe BC: Nilotique

DIAGNOSE. Les sujets de ce groupe se caractérisent à la fois par leurs proportions moyennes, et par la forme de la tête qui est comme étirée dans le sens de la hauteur. La voûte est assez haute, mais point étroite, sauf lorsque l'indice céphalique a une valeur très basse.

La face n'est jamais très large; moyenne par rapport au crâne, elle est souvent un peu allongée dans ses proportions. Le prognathisme sous-nasal, très net sur les crânes, est souvent peu visible sur le sujet vivant. Le nez, à la fois haut et large, est moyen dans ses proportions, avec le dos généralement droit, et l'ensellure supra-nasale bien marquée. La paupière supérieure est souvent recouverte par un fort repli. La bouche est grande et charnue, avec des lèvres assez épaisses mais point éversées. Le menton est généralement bien développé. La forme générale du visage est celle d'un ovale allongé avec les contours atténués.

Distribution des sujets. Les sujets du groupe BC se répartissent en trois classes, d'après la valeur de l'indice céphalique :

Type nord-nilotique, si l'indice est au plus égal à 75,9 Type nubien, si l'indice vaut de 76,0 à 80,9 Type nubien des Oasis, si l'indice est au moins égal à 81,0.

Nous avons déterminé 42 sujets masculins, se distribuant comme suit :

Marsa Matroun. Autochtones, adultes:

Nord-nilotiques, 3 sujets: nº 19, 48, 95;

Nubiens, 3 sujets: n° 23, 64, 104.

Autochtones, garçons:

Nord-nilotique, 1 sujet : boy n° 107;

Nubien, 1 sujet: boy n° 50;

Nubien des Oasis, 1 sujet : boy n° 60.

Semi-autochtone, adulte:

Nord-nilotique, 1 sujet : n° 127.

Semi-autochtone, adolescent:

Nord-nilotique, 1 sujet : boy n° 5.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Nord-nilotiques, 5 sujets: n° 132, 160, 165, 180, 194;

Nubiens, 2 sujets: nº 172, 220.

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Non-autochtone, adolescent:

Nord-nilotique, 1 sujet, nº 15.

Non-autochtones, garçons:

Nord-nilotiques, 4 sujets: n° 42, 49, 78, 120;

Nubiens, 3 sujets: boys nº 66, 119, 124.

SIDI BARRANY. Autochtone, adulte:

Nord-nilotique, 1 sujet: nº 14.

Solloum. Autochtones, adultes:

Nord-nilotique, 1 sujet: nº 17;

Nubien, 1 sujet: nº 11.

Semi-autochtones, adultes:

Nord-nilotique, 1 sujet: n° 35;

Nubien, 1 sujet: nº 39.

SIWAH. Autochtones, adultes:

Nord-nilotiques, 5 sujets: nº 17, 32, 33, 34, 39.

Autochtones, garçons:

Nord-nilotiques, 2 sujets: boys no 78, 83.

Semi-autochtone, adulte:

Nord-nilotique, 1 sujet: n° 52.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Nubiens, 2 sujets: n° 57, 66.

Non-autochtone, adolescent:

Nubien, 1 sujet: man n° 72.

Nous avons également classé dans le groupe BC, les 3 sujets féminins suivants :

Marsa Matroun. Non-autochtone, adulte:

Nubien, 1 sujet: nº 111.

SIWAH. Autochtone, adulte:

Nubien, 1 sujet: n° 6.

Autochtone, adolescent:

Nubien, 1 sujet : girl nº 14.

CARACTÈRES INDEXABLES. En raison du nombre trop faible de sujets féminins — 3 seulement —, nous n'avons pas pu étudier statistiquement les deux séries; nous avons donc considéré d'abord la série de 42 sujets masculins, et après en avoir établi les caractéristiques, nous avons vérifié que les sujets féminins y répondaient, conformément au tableau suivant :

Indices (groupe BC)	n=4	2 + 3	Caractéristiques
indicos (groupo Do)	m	σ	Garacter 15 and 4 cop
céphalo-facial transversal  — physionomique  — structural  facial total  — supérieur  nasal	92 82 51,4 88,6 55 73	4,5 1,3 1,3 3 1,6 3,3	méso à macropside. métrioprosope. métriène (par définition). méso à leptoprosope. mésène. mésorhinien (par définition).

Nous considérons comme particulièrement caractéristique du groupe nilotique, le sujet masculin n° 165 de Marsa Matrouh (fig. 235).

# Sous-groupe (ABC)-BC

# variété kamitique du groupe nilotique

DIAGNOSE. Les sujets de cette variété se caractérisent par l'étroitesse de la tête et du visage, qui fait que, malgré des dimensions relativement faibles en valeur absolue, la plupart des indices se situent dans la classe élevée. La voûte crânienne est relativement haute et étroite, surtout lorsque l'indice céphalique a une valeur faible, tandis qu'elle est plus large chez les sujets à crâne court.

La face est étroite en valeur absolue, mais le même caractère se retrouvant pour la boîte crânienne, l'indice céphalo-facial transversal a fréquemment une valeur élevée. Le visage a un faible développement en surface, le module facial supérieur étant inférieur à 105 chez les hommes, et à 100 chez les femmes. Le nez, grand et large, est moyen dans ses proportions; le dos est souvent un peu busqué, et l'ensellure supra-nasale n'est point trop accusée. Les yeux sont généralement fendus en amande, et le repli palpébral laisse le tarse bien dégagé. La bouche est grande et charnue, avec des lèvres assez épaisses mais non éversées. Le menton est le plus souvent bien développé. L'ensemble du visage est de forme allongée avec des traits accusés.

DISTRIBUTION DES SUJETS. Les sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-BC se répartissent en trois classes, d'après la valeur de l'indice céphalique :

Type kamito-nilotique, si l'indice est au plus égal à 75,9 Type kamito-nubien, si l'indice vaut de 76,0 à 80,9 Type kamito-nubien des Oasis, si l'indice est au moins égal à 81,0.

Nous avons déterminé 17 sujets masculins se distribuant comme suit :

MARSA MATROUH. Autochtones, adultes:

Kamito-nilotiques, 3 sujets: nº 12, 39, 59;

Kamito-nubien, 1 sujet : nº 78.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Kamito-nilotiques, 2 sujets: nº 185, 213;

Kamito-nubien, 1 sujet: n° 217.

SIWAH. Autochtones, adultes:

Kamito-nilotiques, 6 sujets: n° 2, 15, 20, 30, 43, 47.

Autochtone, adolescent:

Kamito-nilotique, 1 sujet: man n° 48.

Autochtone, garçon:

Kamito-nilotique, 1 sujet : boy nº 84.

Semi-autochtone, adulte:

Kamito-nilotique, 1 sujet : nº 53.

Non-autochtone, adulte:

Kamito-nubien, 1 sujet: nº 61.

Nous avons également classé dans le sous-groupe (ABC)-BC, les 5 sujets féminins suivants :

Marsa Matroun. Non-autochtone, adulte:

Kamito-nilotique, 1 sujet : nº 126.

Non-autochtone, fille:

Kamito-nubien, 1 sujet : girl n° 23.

SIWAH. Autochtones, adultes:

Kamito-nilotiques, 3 sujets: n° 1, 5, 7.

CARACTÈRES INDEXABLES. Nous ne disposons pas pour ce sous-groupe d'une série suffisante pour permettre une étude statistique; il est néanmoins possible d'indiquer les caractères anthropométriques de la majorité des sujets, en rassemblant les résultats dans le tableau cidessous:

Indices (sous-groupe (ABC)-BC)	n = 17 + 5	Caractéristiques
céphalo-facial transversal	91-94	méso à macropside.
- physionomique	85-86	hypsiprosope.
structural	55-56	hypsiène (par définition).
facial total	89-92	leptoprosope.
- supérieur	56-58	mésène à leptène.
nasal	71-74	mésorhinien (par définition)

On devra noter que le visage est généralement un peu plus étroit chez les femmes que chez les hommes. Nous considérons comme

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particulièrement caractéristique de la variété kamitique du groupe nilotique le sujet masculin n° 217 de Marsa Matrouh (fig. 111).

#### Groupe B: Soudanais

Diagnose. Les sujets de ce groupe se caractérisent par un fort développement du massif facial qui est comme projeté en avant. La voûte crânienne est assez haute, et surtout étroite, avec des contours très arrondis.

La face est fortement développée, sa largeur pouvant égaler celle de la tête; la partie supérieure est moyenne par rapport à l'ensemble et dans ses proportions. L'étude des crânes (1) met en évidence un net prognathisme facial et un fort prognathisme alvéolaire; ces caractères ne sont pas indexables sur les sujets vivants, mais en vue latérale le prognathisme est néanmoins très sensible. Il n'est pas non plus possible d'avoir le moindre renseignement sur la structure de la base de l'ouverture piriforme (2); chez le vivant, on doit se borner à noter les proportions du nez, qui doit toujours se ranger dans la classe des platyrhiniens; le dos peut être concave, droit, ou même légèrement convexe, surmonté par une ensellure peu profonde. Les paupières supérieures portent généralement un fort repli qui recouvre entièrement le tarse; on peut aussi observer la présence d'une bride externe. La bouche est grande avec des lèvres épaisses toujours plus ou moins éversées. Le menton est rond, généralement peu développé.

Alors que dans les groupes précédents, les cheveux se classent dans divers types, le groupe B présente une prédominance de sujets à cheveux, brun-foncé à noir, très frisés, crépus ou laineux, ce qui tend à accuser l'aspect négroïde de l'ensemble. La forme générale du visage est celle d'un ovale large aux contours très atténués.

DISTRIBUTION DES SUJETS. Le groupe B n'est représenté dans la série que nous venons d'étudier que par 6 sujets masculins, tous dolichocéphales, se répartissant comme suit :

Solloum. Autochtone, adulte:

Soudanais, 1 sujet: n° 30.

Non-autochtones, adultes:

Soudanais, 2 sujets: n° 42, 43.

SIWAH. Autochtone, adulte:

Soudanais, 1 sujet: nº 46.

Autochtone, garçon:

Soudanais, 1 sujet : boy nº 77.

Non-autochtone, adulte:

Soudanais, 1 sujet: n° 56.

CARACTÈRES INDEXABLES. Il n'est pas possible sur une série aussi faible de faire une étude statistique, mais compte tenu que ce groupe est connu par ailleurs, nous avons réuni dans un tableau les caractères anthropométriques nous ayant permis de déterminer les sujets:

Indices (groupe B)	n=6	Caractéristiques
céphalo-facial transversal	93-95	macropside.
— physionomique	79-83	métrioprosope.
structural	50-52	métriène (par définition).
facial total	84-88	mésoprosope.
— supérieur	50-52	euryène.
nasal	86-89	platyrhinien (par définition).

Nous considérons comme particulièrement caractéristique du groupe soudanais, le sujet masculin n° 42 de Solloum (fig. 50).

<sup>(1)</sup> Le groupe soudanais correspond au type crânien grimaldoïde dont nous avons étudié les restes en Europe méditerranéenne, cf. op. cit., 1960, pp. 42-58.

<sup>(3)</sup> Sur les crânes, celle-ci est dédoublée, et précédée d'une gouttière plus ou moins développée.

### Sous-groupe (ABC)-B: Kamito-soudanais

Un seul sujet se classant dans cette variété, se caractérisant comme les sujets du groupe ABC, avec en outre fort prognathisme et platyrhinie, nous nous bornerons à donner les caractéristiques de celui-ci sans entrer dans d'autres considérations :

Stwah. Autochtone, adulte, sujet masculin nº 35

Cheveux: brun foncé (Y) et crépus (11)

Yeux: noirs (80)

CARACTÉRISTIQUES. Dolichocéphale (71,5), hypsicéphale (65,5), acrocéphale (91,6), métriométope (69,9), macropside (95,8), hypsiprosope (85,3), hypsiène (54,5), leptoprosope (89,1), mésène (56,9), platyrhinien (86).

#### COMPOSITION DE LA POPULATION

Pour interpréter les résultats de l'étude systématique, il convient de procéder à des sélections et à des regroupements, de manière à mettre en évidence les caractères propres à chaque localité, à l'ensemble de la population autochtone du district occidental, et à l'ensemble de la population non-autochtone dans cette même région.

# Répartition des types dans les villes du district occidental

Dans ce chapitre, nous ne considérerons que les sujets autochtones dans chacune des quatre localités étudiées.

#### Marsa Matrouh

La véritable unité systématique étant représentée par le groupe et non par le type, il y a lieu de considérer ceux-ci dans leur ensemble. Le groupe ABC prédomine, avec 91 sujets qui représentent 42,5 % de la population autochtone de Marsa Matrouh; le groupe AC, avec 65 sujets, représente 31,9 %, auxquels il convient d'adjoindre les 8,88 % que représentent les 19 sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-AC. Le groupe A, avec 24 sujets, représente 11,2 % de la population. Le groupe AB,

avec un seul sujet, ne compte que pour 0,46 %; le groupe BC, avec 9 sujets, représente 4,2 %, auxquels il convient d'adjoindre 1,87 % représentés par les 4 sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-BC.

76	h	omme	s	f	emme	es		T-4-1
Marsa Matrouh	Ad.	20/18	17/14	Ad.	20/18	17/14		Total
ABC. Dolichocéphales	30	2	3	4		_	39	18,22 %
Mésocéphales	26	2	4	9		2	43	20,8 %
Brachycéphales	6		1		1	1	9	4,2 %
AC, Kamitiques	4		_	1	_		5	2,33 %
Africains: Libyco-berbères	10	_		7			17	7,94%
Berbéro-telliens	3		_	1	-	_	4	1,87 %
AC, Sud-orientaux	1			1	1		3	1,41 %
Asiatiques : Syro-cananéens	2	1	_	7	2		12	5,61%
Syro-arménoïdes		_		1	_		1	0,46 %
AC, Dolichocéphales	_	_	9		-		9	4,2 %
Enfants: Mésocéphales			12		_	1	13	6,07 %
Brachycéphales			2	_	_		2	0,93 %
(ABC)-AC. Nord-syriens	6		-	1	2	2	11	5,14%
Ciliciens	6		_	2			8	3,74 %
A. Méditerranéens anciens			4	3			7	3,27 %
Alpino-méditerranéens	2	1	4	7	_	1	15	7,01%
Alpinoïdes		_	1		1		2	0,93 %
AB. Nord-saharien		_	1				1	0,46 %
BC. Nord-nilotiques	3	_	1				4	1,87 %
Nubiens	3		1		_		4	1,87 %
Nubien des Oasis			1	_		_	1	0,46 %
(ABC)-BC. Kamito-nilotiques	3					-	3	1,41 %
Kamito-nubien	1	_	-	_	_		1	0,46 %
Total	106	6	44	44	7	7	214	

On doit aussi sélectionner les sujets d'après leurs affinités géographiques; nous pouvons ainsi distinguer :

1. Eléments autochtones de type africain sans caractères négroïdes: nous devons classer ici le plus grand nombre de sujets, 91 du groupe ABC, et 26 du sous-groupe africain du groupe AC, soit au total 117 sujets représentant 54,7 % de la population.

- 2. Eléments autochtones de type africain présentant des caractères négroïdes plus ou moins nets : cet ensemble est peu important puisqu'il ne réunit que les 14 sujets des groupes AB et BC et du sous-groupe (ABC)-BC, représentant en tout 6,54 % de la population.
- 3. Eléments autochtones de type méditerranéen: il convient de classer ici les sujets des types méditerranéen ancien et alpino-méditerranéen; le type alpinoïde, ainsi que nous l'avons déjà signalé (1), n'est en effet pas autochtone en Egypte, mais d'origine syro-libanaise; nous ne considérons donc que 22 sujets du groupe A, représentant 10,28 % de la population.
- 4. Eléments présentant des affinités cananéennes: nous devons réunir ici les sujets du sous-groupe asiatique du groupe AC, du sous-groupe (ABC)-AC, et du type alpinoïde (A<sub>3</sub>), soit un ensemble de 37 sujets représentant 17,3 % de la population. Cet élément n'est pas négligeable; il est néanmoins manifeste que les sujets des types autochtones prédominent très largement à Marsa Matrouh.

Enfin, indépendamment des affinités typologiques, nous devons considérer les classes d'indice céphalique, de façon à préciser l'importance relative des influences maritimes, sub-littorales, et continentales (2). Nous trouvons la distribution suivante :

Dolichocéphales, 82 sujets, soit 38,31 % de la population; Mésocéphales, 113 sujets, soit 52,81 % de la population; Brachycéphales, 20 sujets, soit 8,88 % de la population.

La large prédominance des sujets dolichocéphales et mésocéphales confère à la population de Marsa Matrouh, un caractère très net de population autochtone dans une région littorale.

### Sidi Barrany

En considérant les groupes dans leur ensemble, on voit que le groupe ABC, avec 18 sujets, représente 21,64 % de la population autochtone de Sidi Barrany; le groupe AC prédomine ici nettement avec 28 sujets représentant 33.74 %, auxquels il convient d'ajouter les 20,48 %

correspondant aux 17 sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-AC. Le groupe A, avec 15 sujets représente 18,08 % de la population; le groupe AB, avec 3 sujets, ne compte que pour 3,61 %, et le groupe BC, avec un seul sujet, pour 1,20 %.

0111 2	ho	mmes	3	femn	nes		M . 1
Sidi Barrany	Ad.	20/18	17/14	Ad.	20/18		Total
ABC. Dolichocéphales	6		_	2		8	9,46 %
Mésocéphales	3		-	5		8	9,46 %
Brachycéphales	_		_	1	1	2	2,41 %
AC, Kamitiques	2			1	_	3	3,61 %
Africains: Libyco-berbères	2	1		6	_	9	10,84%
Berbéro-telliens	1		-	1	_	2	2,41 %
AC, Sud-orientaux	1	_		3		4	4,82%
Asiatiques : Syro-cananéens	2	1		3	1	7	8,43 %
Syro-arménoïdes	_	-	_	3	1	4	4,82%
(ABC)-AC. Nord-syriens			1	6	_	7	8,43 %
Ciliciens	1	_		7		8	9,46%
Arménoïdes	2	_	_			2	2,41 %
A. Méditerranéens anciens				2		2	2,41 %
Alpino-méditerranéens	2	3		7	_	12	14,47 %
Alpinoïde				1		1	1,20 %
AB. Nord-saharien				1		1	1,20 %
Saharien	1				_	1	1,20 %
Saharien des Oasis				1		1	1,20 %
BC. Nord-nilotique	1					1	1,20 %
Total	24	5	1	50	3	83	

En sélectionnant les sujets d'après leurs affinités géographiques, on arrive à la répartition suivante :

- 1. Eléments autochtones de type africain sans caractères négroïdes: nous devons réunir ici les 18 sujets du groupe ABC et les 13 sujets du sousgroupe africain du groupe AC, soit au total 31 sujets représentant 37,38 % de la population de Sidi Barrany.
- 2. Eléments autochtones de type africain présentant des caractères négroïdes plus ou moins accusés : ces éléments sont sporadiques, puisque, avec

<sup>(1)</sup> op. cit., 1961, p. 219. (2) op. cit., 1960, pp. 152-53.

STRUCTURE CÉPHALIQUE DES POPULATIONS

3 sujets du groupe AB et un seul du groupe BC, on ne peut réunir que 4 sujets représentant 4,82 % de la population.

- 3. Eléments autochtones de type méditerranéen: avec 2 Méditerranéens anciens et 12 Alpino-méditerranéens, on réunit un ensemble de 14 sujets représentant 16,88 % de la population.
- 4. Eléments présentant des affinités cananéennes : ce composant est ici important; avec 15 sujets du sous-groupe asiatique du groupe AC, 17 sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-AC, et 1 Alpinoïde, on a un ensemble de 33 sujets représentant 39,88 % de la population. La population de Sidi Barrany semble donc se caractériser par la participation d'un élément cananéen important, qui dépasse même légèrement en nombre l'élément kamitique proprement dit.

La répartition de l'indice céphalique s'établit comme suit :

Dolichocéphales, 26 sujets, soit 31,32 % de la population; Mésocéphales, 45 sujets, soit 54,21 % de la population; Brachycéphales, 12 sujets, soit 14,47 % de la population.

Les chiffres ainsi obtenus à Sidi Barrany sont du même ordre de grandeur que ceux enregistrés à Marsa Matrouh, mettant en évidence des caractères de population autochtone dans la zone littorale.

#### Solloum

En considérant les groupes dans leur ensemble, on voit que le groupe ABC prédomine avec 18 sujets représentant 31,58 % de la population autochtone de Solloum; le groupe AC, avec 17 sujets représentant 29,81 %, suit de près, et prend même la prépondérance si l'on y adjoint les 6 sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-AC représentant 10,51 % de la population. Le groupe A est relativement important, avec 13 sujets représentant 22,8 %; le groupe AB n'est pas représenté, le groupe BC avec 2 sujets ne compte que pour 3,55 %, et le groupe B avec un seul sujet pour 1,75 %.

La recherche des affinités géographiques met en évidence la distribution suivante :

1. Eléments autochtones africains sans caractères négroïdes: c'est l'ensemble le plus important à Solloum, qui, avec 18 sujets du groupe ABC et 7 sujets du sous-groupe africain du groupe AC, réunit 25 sujets représentant 43,8,% de la population.

C.V.	ho	mme	s	fe	mmes		Total		
Solloum	Ad.	20/18	17/14	Ad.	20/18	17/14		Total	
ABC. Dolichocéphales	2		*********	2	_	1	5	8,77 %	
Mésocéphales	3			9	-		12	21,06 %	
Brachycéphale		-		1	_		1	1,75 %	
AC, Kamitique	1						1	1,75 %	
Africains: Libyco-berbères	2	_	_	2			4	7,02%	
Berbéro-telliens	2		_			***************************************	2	3,55 %	
AC, Sud-orientaux	2		_	1		_	3	5,26 %	
Asiatiques : Syro-cananéens	4	1					5	8,77 %	
AC, enfants : Mésocéphales			2		_		2	3,55 %	
(ABC)-AC. Nord-syriens			_	3	1		4	7,02 %	
Ciliciens	2	_	-	_		_	2	3,55 %	
A. Méditerranéens anciens	3		_	-			3	5,26 %	
Alpino-méditerranéens	7		1	_	-		8	14,04%	
Alpinoïdes	2				-	_	2	3,55%	
BC. Nord-nilotique	1		-	_			1	1,75 %	
Nubien	1	_	_				1	1,75 %	
B. Soudanais	1			_			1	1,75 %	
Total	33	1	3	18	1	1	57		

- 2. Eléments autochtones africains présentant des caractères négroïdes plus ou moins accusés : ici comme à Sidi Barrany, ces éléments sont sporadiques; 2 sujets du groupe BC et 1 sujet du groupe B, ne représentant en tout que 5,26 % de la population.
- 3. Eléments autochtones de type méditerranéen : on doit classer ici 3 Méditerranéens anciens et 8 Alpino-méditerranéens, soit un ensemble de 11 sujets représentant 19,3 % de la population.
- 4. Eléments présentant des affinités cananéennes: ces éléments constituent ici un ensemble assez important; 8 sujets du sous-groupe asiatique du groupe AC, 6 sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-AC, et 2 Alpinoïdes, forment un groupe de 16 sujets représentant 28,08 % de la

population, soit un chiffre à peine inférieur à celui de la population kamitique proprement dite.

La répartition de l'indice céphalique met en évidence les caractères suivants :

Dolichocéphales, 18 sujets, soit 31,58 % de la population; Mésocéphales, 34 sujets, soit 59,65 % de la population; Brachycéphales, 5 sujets, soit 8,77 % de la population.

Comme à Marsa Matrouh et à Sidi Barrany, la prédominance des Dolichocéphales et des Mésocéphales est un caractère propre à une population autochtone dans la zone littorale.

#### Siwah

C:I-	h	omme	S	fe	mme	5		Tr. 4.1		
Siwah	Ád.	20/18	17/14	Ad.	20/18	17/14		Total		
ABC. Dolichocéphales	16					_	16	21,7 %		
Mésocéphales	2			-			2	2,63 %		
AC, Kamitique	1					_	1	1,31 %		
Africains: Libyco-berbère	1						1	1,31 %		
AC, Asiatiques: Sud-orientaux	5	-		3			8	10,55%		
AC, Dolichocéphales			1	_	-	1	2	2,63 %		
enfants: Mésocéphales					-	2	2	2,63 %		
(ABC)-AC. Nord-syriens	7	1	2	4		-	14	18,43 %		
A. Méditerranéens anciens	2		3	_			5	6,58 %		
AB. Nord-saharien	-			- 1			- 1	1,31 %		
Saharien	1		Management				1	1,31 %		
BC. Nord-nilotiques	5		2		_		7	9,21 %		
Nubiens		-		1	1		2	2,63 %		
(ABC)-BC. Kamito-nilotiques.	6	1	1	3			11	14,48 %		
B. Soudanais	1		1				2	2,63 %		
(ABC)-B. Kamito-soudanais.	1		_	_	_		1	1,31 %		
Total	48	2	10	12	1	3	76			

En considérant les groupes dans leur ensemble, on note que le groupe ABC prédomine encore, mais moins nettement que chez les populations de la côte; il ne compte en effet que 18 sujets représentant 23,69 %

de la population autochtone de Siwah. Le groupe AC comprend 14 sujets représentant 18,43 % auxquels il convient d'adjoindre une proportion identique de sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-AC; le groupe A n'est ici représenté que par 5 Méditerranéens anciens comptant pour 6,58 %. Le groupe AB, avec 2 sujets, représente 2,63 %, de même que le groupe B, également représenté par 2 sujets; en revanche, le groupe BC, avec 9 sujets, représente 11,84 % auxquels il convient d'adjoindre 14,48 %, taux du sous-groupe (ABC)-BC, représenté à Siwah par 11 sujets; enfin, le sous-groupe (ABC)-B est également présent, avec 1 sujet représentant 1,31 %.

A la lecture du taux de chaque groupe, on remarque d'importantes différences entre la population de l'oasis de Siwah et celle des villes de la côte; ces différences seront encore mieux mises en évidence en groupant les types suivant leurs affinités géographiques:

- 1. Eléments autochtones africains sans caractères négroïdes: les 18 sujets du groupe ABC et les 2 sujets du sous-groupe africain du groupe AC ne constituent qu'un ensemble de 20 sujets représentant 26,35 % de la population de Siwah.
- 2. Eléments autochtones africains présentant des caractères négroïdes plus ou moins accusés: contrairement à ce que nous avions noté dans les villes de la côte, ces éléments prennent une part importante à la composition de la population; 2 sujets du groupe AB, 9 sujets du groupe BC, 11 sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-BC, 2 sujets du groupe B et 1 sujet du sous-groupe (ABC)-B constituent un ensemble de 25 sujets représentant 32,9% de la population.
- 3. Eléments autochtones de type méditerranéen: ici encore, nous enregistrons une importante différence avec les villes de la côte, le groupe méditerranéen ne réunissant à Siwah que 5 sujets, ce qui constitue un élément sporadique ne représentant que 6,58 % de la population.
- 4. Eléments présentant des affinités cananéennes : ces éléments constituent ici un ensemble du même ordre que dans les villes de la côte; nous avons en effet 8 Sud-orientaux et 14 Nord-syriens, soit 22 sujets représentant 28,96 % de la population.

L'étude de la répartition de l'indice céphalique met en évidence les particularités suivantes :

Dolichocéphales, 68 sujets, soit 89,5 % de la population; Mésocéphales, 8 sujets, soit 10,5 % de la population.

Il n'y a aucun sujet brachycéphale à Siwah; sans doute n'y a-t-il pas lieu de tirer des conclusions excessives de cette particularité, mais celle-ci jointe à la présence d'une forte proportion de sub-négroïdes tend à donner à la population de Siwah un caractère plus strictement africain qu'aux villes de la côte, qui comptent en revanche, un important élément méditerranéen et un certain nombre de Levantins brachycéphales.

La comparaison entre les caractères propres à chacune des quatre localités étudiées sera facilitée en rassemblant les résultats dans un tableau :

	Marsa Matrouh	Sidi Barrany	Solloum	Siwah
Autochtones non négroïdes Autochtones sub-négroïdes		37,38 % 4,82 %	43,8 % 5,26 %	26,35 % 32,9 %
Méditerranéens	. ,0	16,88 % 39,88 %	19,3 % 28,08 %	6,58 % 28,96 %

On note que c'est à Marsa Matrouh que les éléments caractéristiques de l'Afrique blanche sont les plus nombreux; à Sidi Barrany et à Solloum, ces éléments sont moins nombreux, mais, en revanche, les types méditerranéens prennent une part plus importante à la composition de la population. Dans ces trois localités, les éléments sub-négroïdes ne sont représentés qu'en très faible proportion. Les Cananéens sont nombreux, surtout à Sidi Barrany, leur participation à Solloum et à Marsa Matrouh est plus modeste; mais il convient de souligner que dans ces trois localités, on rencontre des Ciliciens, des Syro-arménoïdes, des Syro-cananéens et des Arménoïdes, types vraiment caractéristiques des populations levantines qui font totalement défaut à Siwah, où l'élément oriental n'est représenté que par des Nord-syriens et des

Sud-orientaux, types très fréquents chez les Bédouins, en Asie comme en Afrique. Il y a donc d'importantes différences entre les villes de la côte où la population présente des affinités méditerranéo-africaines avec immixion d'éléments levantins sédentaires, et l'oasis de Siwah où la population présente des affinités plus strictement africaines avec des éléments orientaux caravaniers.

# Répartition des types dans les populations rurales du district occidental

Bien qu'ayant été étudiés dans les localités dont nous venons de considérer les populations, les sujets signalés comme « semi-autochtones » peuvent nous donner d'utiles renseignements sur les populations rurales de la même région puisque un seul ou les deux parents des sujets étudiés sont originaires non de la localité mais des environs.

Il aurait été intéressant d'examiner séparément les documents provenant de la région côtière, et ceux de la région de Siwah; malheureusement ces derniers sont trop peu nombreux, et nous devrons donc regrouper tous les sujets en une série unique conformément au tableau de la page suivante.

En considérant les groupes dans leur ensemble, on remarque que le groupe ABC, avec 28 sujets, représente 30,68 % de la population; son importance est dépassée par celle du groupe AC, qui avec 34 sujets représente 36,37 % auxquels il convient d'ajouter 9,88 % pour les 9 sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-AC. Le groupe A est en proportion beaucoup plus faible, avec 13 sujets représentant 14,48 %, Le groupe AB, avec un seul sujet, ne représente que 1,09 %, tout comme le sous-groupe (ABC)-BC, qui ne comprend aussi qu'un sujet, et le groupe BC, avec 5 sujets, représente 5,49 %.

Le groupe des sujets d'après les affinités géographiques donne les indications suivantes :

1. Eléments autochtones africains sans caractères négroïdes: les 28 sujets du groupe ABC et les 15 sujets du sous-groupe africain du groupe AC constituent un ensemble de 43 sujets représentant 47,23 % de la population rurale du district occidental d'Egypte.

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Trotal	1 Otal	0		4 4,39%	10 10,99%	1 1,09%	8 8,79%	2,19	3 3,29 %		8,79	1 1,09%	8,79	2 2,19%	3,29	1 1,09%	4,39	1,09%	60,	91
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		ABC. Dolichocéphales	Mésocéphales	AC, Kamitiques'	Africains: Libyco-berbères	Berbéro-tellien	AC, Syro-cananéens	Asiatiques: Syro-arménoïdes	AC, Dolichocéphales	enfants: Mésocéphales	(ABC)-AC. Nord-syriens	Ciliciens	A. Méditerranéens anciens	Alpino-méditerranéens,	Alpinoides	AB. Nord-saharien	BC. Nord-nilotiques	Nubien	(ABC)-BC. Kamito-nilotique	Total

- 2. Eléments autochtones africains présentant des caractères négroïdes plus ou moins accusés: nous devons classer ici l'unique sujet du groupe AB, les 5 sujets du groupe BC et l'unique sujet du sous-groupe (ABC)-BC, soit au total 7 sujets représentant 7,69 % de la population.
- 3. Eléments autochtones de type méditerranéen: les 8 Méditerranéens anciens et les 2 Alpino-méditerranéens constituent un ensemble de 10 sujets représentant 10,99 % de la population.
- 4. Eléments présentant des affinités cananéennes: ce groupement, qui réunit 10 sujets du sous-groupe asiatique du groupe AC, 9 sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-AC, et 3 Alpinoïdes, est relativement important avec 22 sujets représentant 24,18 % de la population.

L'étude de la répartition de l'indice céphalique met en évidence les particularités suivantes :

Dolichocéphales, 40 sujets, soit 43,94 % de la population; Mésocéphales, 45 sujets, soit 49,48 % de la population; Brachycéphales, 6 sujets, soit 6,58 % de la population.

L'ensemble des indications obtenues concourt à rapprocher les populations rurales du district occidental d'Egypte des populations côtières de la même région, et en particulier des populations de Marsa Matrouh et de Solloum; nous ne devons pas nous étonner de ce caractère côtier de la population rurale, la plus grande partie de la documentation provenant précisément de la région côtière, et 7 sujets seulement sur 91, étant originaires de la région de Siwah.

# Conclusion sur la population native du district occidental

Après avoir étudié séparément chacune des communautés de sujets natifs du district occidental, il convient de procéder à certains regroupements afin de mieux mettre en évidence les caractères propres à chacun des grands ensembles naturels. Dans le tableau ci-dessous, nous donnons la répartition des types dans les villes de la côte, à Siwah, et au sein de ce que nous avons conventionnellement appelé, les populations rurales :

		Populations		de la c	côte	Pol	Population	Po	Populations		Total
	M.M.	S.B.	Sol.		Total	de	Siwah	н	rurales	db	général
ABC. Dolichocénhales	30	00	10		69 1/	16	1		60 6	79	7 17
Mésocéphales	200	000	10		000	0	9,63%	17	18,69%	000	1 1
Brachvcéphales	6	0		100	330	1	0		2	10.	, G.
AC, Kamitiques	70	600	-		27	-	65	77	30	1/1	69
Africains : Libveo-berbères	17	6	1	30	17	-	1310/	10	900	11/	000
Berberg	1	0	6	000	96	۲	106	-	1,00%	10	200
AC, Sud-orientaux	<del> </del> 60	4	1 eo	10	10. 10. 10. 10. 10.	00	10.55%	1	2	18	3,45%
tiques: Syro-ca	12	7	20	24	78	1		00	79	67	14
Syro-arménoïdes	1	77	1	70	42	1	1	67	2,19%	7	34
Dolich	6	1	1	6	79	67	,63	ന	,29	14	69,
enfants: Mésocéphales	13	1	67	15	23	প	2,63%	9	58	23	42
Brachy	67	1	1	67	56	1		1	.	67	38
(ABC)-AC. Nord-syriens	11	7	7	22	21	14	18,43 %	00	.79	44	67,
Ciliciens	00	00	67	18	80,	1		1	1,09%	19	65
Arménoïdes	1	67	1		26				1	63	38
A. Méditerranéens anciens	_	O1	က	12	33	ಬ	6,58%	00	,79	25	00
Alpino-méditerranéens	15	12	00		83	-	1	O)	2,19%	37	1,
	07		67	ro	42	1	1	ಣ	29	00	53
AB. Nord-sahariens	-	← .	1	67	26	-	1,31%	7	60,	7	,76
Sahariens	1		-	1	70	_	31	1	1	c)	س ص
	1		1	<del>-</del>	200		1		1	_	,19
BC. Nord-nilotiques	77	1	_	9	69	7	9,21%	7	4,39%	17	27
Nublens	77	1	1	20	77	67	,63	_		00	50
	-	1	1	_	200	1		1		1	,19
(ABC)-BC. Kamito-nilotiques	ಣ	1	1	ന	00	11	14,48%	Ę,	1,09%	15	88,
Kamito-nubien	T	1	-	7	28	-		1		T	,19
lan	1	1	1	_	28	67	2,63%	1	1	ന	,57
(ABC)-B. Kamito-soudanais	I	-	1	1		~	31	-	I	1	19
Total	214	80	22	354		92	*	91		521	

Un second tableau, donnant la répartition, non plus de chaque type en détail, mais des groupes dans leur ensemble, sera encore plus explicite:

						-		
		ulations la côte		pulation Siwah		oulations urales		Total
Groupe ABC		35,9 % 31,65 %	18 14	23,69 % 18,43 %	28	30,68 %	173	33,22 %
Sous-groupe				- 70		36,37 %	160	30,75%
(ABC)-AC Groupe A	42 52	11,86 % 14,69 %	14 5	18,43 % 6,58 %	9 13	9,88 % 14,48 %	65 70	12,5 % 13,45 %
Groupe AB Groupe BC	4 12	1,13 % 3,39 %	2 9	2,63 % 11,84 %	1 5	1,09 % 5,45 %	6 26	1,15 %
Sous-groupe				70		,,,	20	4,99%
(ABC)-BC Groupe B	4	1,13 % 0,28 %	11 2	14,48 % 2,63 %	1	1,09 %	16	3,07 % 0,57 %
Sous-groupe		7,20 /0	-	,,,,				/0
(ABC)-B	_		1	1,31 %		george Control	1	0,19 %

On voit que d'une manière générale, le groupe ABC constitue le tiers de la population, sauf à Siwah où son taux est légèrement inférieur au quart; le groupe AC ne lui est que de peu inférieur, sauf à Siwah encore où son importance est moindre. Le sous-groupe (ABC)-AC, qui renferme des éléments sub-anatoliens, est mieux représenté dans les villes que dans les campagnes; sa présence à Siwah est plus importante qu'ailleurs, mais il convient de noter qu'il y est représenté uniquement par des éléments caravaniers qui ont existé à toutes les époques en Egypte. Le groupe A est plus fréquent sur la côte et dans les campagnes qu'à Siwah; en revanche, les groupes et sous-groupes AB, BC, (ABC)-BC, B et (ABC)-B, qui présentent tous des affinités négroïdes plus ou moins accusées, sont mieux représentés à Siwah que sur la côte et dans les campagnes.

En groupant les types, non plus systématiquement, mais d'après leurs affinités géographiques, on peut dresser le tableau suivant :

STRUCTURE	CÉPHALIQUE	DES	POPULATIONS
DIMOULDING	ODI MADIQUE	DLD	TOTOTIVIO

Populations Population Populations Total de Siwah de la côte rurales 49,15% 26,35% 47,23 % 45,2 % Eléments non négroïdes... 32,9 % 7,69% 9,98% Elements sub-negroïdes... 5,93% 11,9 % 10,99% 13,8 % 6,58% Eléments méditerranéens .. 24,3 % 24,18% 24,95% Eléments cananéens..... 28,96 %

Ainsi que cela s'observe le plus souvent, les populations rurales sont plus représentatives de l'aspect général de la population que les populations des villes. L'élément autochtone non négroïde est de peu inférieur à la moitié de l'ensemble; l'élément sub-négroïde est inférieur à 10 %, tandis que l'élément méditerranéen est sensiblement supérieur à ce taux, l'élément cananéen représentant partout à peu près le quart de la population.

La population de la côte se caractérise par une importance plus grande de l'élément méditerranéen, et un nombre très réduit d'éléments subnégroïdes, particularités qui s'accordent parfaitement avec les conditions géographiques.

A Siwah au contraire, c'est l'élément sub-négroïde qui prédomine, non seulement sur l'élément méditerranéen ici sporadique, mais même sur les éléments kamitiques proprement dits, ce qui confère à l'isolat de Siwah un caractère de relais caravanier entre l'Egypte véritable et le cœur de l'Afrique.

Il convient enfin d'examiner la répartition des classes de l'indice céphalique:

		ulations la côte		pulation Siwah		pulations rurales	_	Total
Dolichocéphales Mésocéphales Brachycéphales	192	54,2 %	68 8 —	89,5 %	40 45 6	43,94 % 49,48 % 6,58 %	245	47 %

D'une manière générale, le taux des Mésocéphales est sensiblement supérieur à celui des Dolichocéphales, et le nombre des Brachycéphales est très faible, ce qui met bien en évidence le caractère autochtone des populations du district occidental d'Egypte dans la région littorale et sub-littorale.

Nous n'insisterons pas sur la prédominance écrasante des Dolichocéphales à Siwah, que nous avons déjà expliquée plus haut par la présence d'éléments bédouins dolichocéphales.

En résumé, la population du district occidental d'Egypte est essentiellement constituée par des éléments autochtones, kamitiques et méditerranéens, auxquels se mèlent quelques éléments sub-négroïdes et quelques éléments d'origine plus orientale, mais les uns et les autres étant déjà représentés au sein de la population égyptienne dès la plus haute antiquité, mettant ainsi en évidence les relations très anciennes de ce pays avec le cœur de l'Afrique et avec le Proche-Orient asiatique; quant aux éléments sub-anatoliens (Ciliciens, Syro-arménoïdes, Arménoïdes) qui sont les seuls à être vraiment étrangers à l'Egypte, ils ne sont représentés que par quelques sujets épars au sein des communautés que nous venons d'analyser.

# Répartition des types dans la population non autochtone du district occidental

L'étude des sujets originaires de régions d'Egypte autres que le district occidental, peut dans une certaine mesure nous renseigner sur la composition de la population égyptienne, considérée dans son ensemble.

Les documents pris ici en considération se répartissent conformément au tableau de la page suivante.

En considérant les groupes dans leur ensemble, on remarque que le groupe ABC prédomine largement avec 106 sujets représentant 33,33 % soit exactement le tiers de la population non autochtone. Le groupe AC est également très important avec 92 sujets représentant 28, 94 %, auxquels il convient d'ajouter l'appoint non négligeable de 10,38 % pour

~4		femmes of femmes
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les sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-AC. Le groupe A est encore représenté par 46 sujets comptant pour 14,46 % de l'ensemble, mais les autres groupes sont beaucoup plus faibles; le groupe AB avec 12 sujets ne compte que pour 3,77 %, le groupe BC avec 19 sujets pour 5,97 %, le sous-groupe (ABC)-BC avec 7 sujets pour 2,2 %, et le groupe B avec 3 sujets pour 0,94 % seulement.

Le groupement des types d'après les affinités géographiques apporte d'importantes précisions :

- 1. Eléments autochtones africains sans caractères négroïdes: nous devons classer ici 106 sujets du groupe ABC et 30 sujets du sous-groupe africain du groupe AC, soit un ensemble de 136 sujets représentant 42,75 % de la population non autochtone, ce qui est un taux considérable.
- 2. Eléments autochtones présentant des caractères négroïdes plus ou moins accusés: 12 sujets du groupe AB, 19 sujets du groupe BC, 7 sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-BC, et 3 sujets du groupe B, constituent un ensemble de 41 sujets représentant 12,89 % de la population, proportion qui n'est nullement négligeable.
- 3. Eléments autochtones de type méditerranéen: 11 Méditerranéens anciens et 30 Alpino-méditerranéens constituent un ensemble dont l'importance est égale à celle des sub-négroïdes, soit 12,89 % de la population.
- 4. Eléments présentant des affinités cananéennes : 29 sujets du sous-groupe asiatique du groupe AC, 33 sujets du sous-groupe (ABC)-AC, et 5 Alpinoïdes, forment un ensemble de 67 sujets représentant 21,08 % de la population.

L'étude de la répartition de l'indice céphalique apporte les précisions suivantes :

Dolichocéphales, 133 sujets, soit 41,84 % de la population; Mésocéphales, 164 sujets, soit 51,55 % de la population; Brachycéphales, 21 sujets, soit 6,61 % de la population.

Le nombre réduit de Brachycéphales montre que l'influence continentale est faible sur l'ensemble de la population égyptienne, ce qui n'est d'ailleurs nullement pour nous surprendre, étant donné la situation géographique de ce pays, baigné à la fois par la Méditerranée et par la mer Rouge.

Le principal élément de la population est formé de sujets appartenant aux groupes paléo-kamitique et kamitique, qui est l'ensemble caractéristique de l'Afrique blanche, donc strictement autochtone en Egypte.

Le second élément, mais avec une importance infiniment moindre, est celui formé par les sujets présentant des affinités avec des types de l'Asie antérieure. Il convient ici de souligner que la présence, avec une certaine fréquence en deçà de la frontière, de types qui sont majoritaires au delà, ne sous-entend nullement une intrusion de sujets étrangers, mais est simplement le témoignage d'échanges anciens entre deux populations voisines; seuls les types cilicien, syro-arménoïde et arménoïde, peuvent être considérés comme vraiment étrangers en Egypte; or ils ne représentent en tout que 6,3 % de la population, taux tout à fait insignifiant.

Enfin, on note une importance équivalente, mais assez faible par rapport à l'ensemble, des éléments méditerranéens et des éléments sub-négroïdes, dont les aires de répartition se chevauchent avec l'aire de répartition des Kamites, et qui par conséquent sont eux aussi des Egyptiens autochtones.

#### Egyptiens d'hier et d'aujourd'hui

Il peut être intéressant de comparer les conclusions auxquelles nous arrivons au sujet du peuplement de l'Egypte moderne, avec celles auxquelles nous parvenions l'an dernier dans ce même Bulletin au sujet du peuplement de la région memphite à l'époque protodynastique (1).

D'après les documents exhumés par Zaki Y. Saad dans la nécropole d'Ezbet-el-Walda, nous avons reconnu au sein de la population protodynastique, les composants suivants:

1. Eléments autochtones non négroïdes : 31,8 %;

- 2. Eléments autochtones sub-négroïdes : 25 %;
- 3. Eléments méditerranéens : 18,2 %;
- 4. Eléments cananéens (9,10 %) et égéens (13,6 %).

On voit donc que l'élément méditerranéen a une importance de l'ordre de ce que nous enregistrons pour les populations modernes des villes de la côte. L'élément kamitique y était moins important que dans ces dernières, tandis que l'élément sub-négroïde était au contraire beaucoup plus fréquent, mais nous n'arrivons pas néanmoins pour ces deux derniers groupes aux mêmes proportions que celles notées dans la population moderne de Siwah; la présence d'un nombre plus grand de sub-négroïdes dans la nécropole protodynastique provient très vraisemblablement du fait que nous avons affaire à des restes de domestiques nubiens, employés en grand nombre dans la capitale, sous les premiers pharaons comme de nos jours. Enfin l'élément étranger, ici levantin et égéen, a dans son ensemble une importance de l'ordre de celle que nous avons notée chez les populations modernes des villes de la côte.

Nous ne remarquons donc pas entre les populations modernes du district occidental d'Egypte, et la population protodynastique de la région memphite, des différences significatives; bien au contraire, les rapprochements et les parallélismes que l'on peut établir, tendent à mettre en évidence un remarquable caractère de continuité dans la composition de la population de Basse Egypte.

#### Problème de l'origine des types représentés en Égypte

Nous n'avons pas l'intention de traiter ici le problème de l'origine du peuplement de l'Egypte, mais simplement de le poser. La complexité des facteurs entrant en ligne de compte, et l'abondance du matériel utilisable — plusieurs milliers de sujets — nécessite en effet une étude d'Anthropologie archéologique que nous nous proposons de publier prochainement.

Les opinions les plus diverses ont été émises sur l'origine des Egyptiens, au sujet desquelles F. Falkenburger s'est livré à une critique très

<sup>(1)</sup> op. cit., 1961, pp. 167-221.

objective (1) et très pertinente. Nous tenons cependant à relever le point de vue encore exposé dans un ouvrage récent à très large diffusion (2). L'auteur — qui malheureusement ne cite pas ses sources, mais qui de toute évidence n'a tenu aucun compte des conclusions de Falkenburger — écrit au sujet des Egyptiens: « tous appartiennent à la race méditerranéenne, mais avec une certaine infiltration de sang nègre»; et plus loin, parlant de la persistance d'un « type égyptien» au cours des âges : « il s'est modifié au début du III° millénaire, sous l'influence de grands Anatoliens venus d'Orient . . . Dès ce moment il n'a plus bougé».

Avant d'en appeler au témoignage de l'œuvre de Falkenburger, nous devons préciser au lecteur certains détails de l'évolution de la nomenclature typologique. Falkenburger, étant le promoteur du système de classification fondé sur la structure du massif facial, en a donné les grandes lignes, dont certains détails ont dû être précisés ou modifiés, lorsque nous avons voulu approfondir le problème, et l'envisager sous l'angle phylogénique. Pour la bonne compréhension, il est indispensable de connaître les équivalences suivantes :

Enfin, les Brachycéphales, que Falkenburger classe séparément, doivent être répartis dans les groupes précédents d'après la structure de leur massif facial.

Ces points étant précisés, reportons-nous au diagramme publié par Falkenburger, donnant le tableau historique de la composition de la population égyptienne (1). Nous voyons qu'à toutes les époques, c'est le groupe C de Falkenburger, c'est-à-dire notre groupe ABC (paléokamitique), qui prédomine; alors que le groupe A (méditerranéen cromagnoïde) ne constitue qu'une faible partie de la population. Le groupe B de Falkenburger — qui correspond à peu près à l'ensemble des types que pour la commodité de l'exposé, nous avons appelés subnégroïdes (2) — ne se rencontre avec une certaine fréquence que dans le Sud : Nagada, Badari, Kerma, Philæ, Eléphantine (ces trois dernières se trouvant en Nubie); il est au contraire fort rare à Thèbes, et à plus forte raison dans le Delta, à toutes les époques. Quant aux Brachycéphales (3) — qui ne sont pas tous des Arménoïdes — qui apparaissent au début du IIIº millénaire, ils ne représentent que 1,6 % de la population de Nagada, et jusqu'à la fin de la période pharaonique, leur taux demeure très bas, surtout dans le Sud. Dans le Nord, on a la trace du passage des Hyksos (4), et le témoignage plus récent de l'installation de communautés étrangères à l'Egypte. Actuellement, on compte un nombre appréciable de Levantins brachycéphales, mais il s'agit bien d'Arméniens et de Libanais devenus Egyptiens, et non d'Egyptiens brachycéphalisés sous une influence anatolienne.

Il convient donc de reprendre les termes de la conclusion de Falkenburger (5): « Nous avons pu suivre à travers tous les âges les représentants de différents types ethniques parmi la population égyptienne, modifiés seulement dans leur pourcentage par des influences géographiques. Il n'y a pas « un Egyptien », mais il y a « des Egyptiens » . . . . . et plus

<sup>(1)</sup> Fréderic Falkenburger. Craniologie Egyptienne. Offenburg/Mayence, 1946, pp. 3-13.

<sup>(\*)</sup> Henri V. Vallois. Les Races humaines. Que sais-je? n° 146 (4° éd.) P.U.F., Paris, 1957, pp. 39-40.

<sup>(3)</sup> Le groupe C ou atlanto-nordique est strictement européen; il se différencie du groupe ABC par de plus faibles dimensions du crâne en valeur absolue, mais les indices se situent dans les mêmes classes pour l'un et l'autre groupes. On note aussi que les sujets du groupe C sont rigoureusement orthognathes, alors que ceux du groupe ABC sont méso ou prognathes.

<sup>(1)</sup> Op. cit., p. 23.

<sup>(2)</sup> Nous tenons à ce propos à rappeler qu'un négroïde n'est pas un métis, mais représente un type bien défini, différent de celui des Noirs d'Afrique, et autochtone dans la zone sub-méditerranéenne d'Afrique; l'expression «infiltration de sang nègre» employée par Vallois n'est donc pas appropriée, ceci pour ne pas parler de son caractère désuet et crypto-raciste.

<sup>(3)</sup> Op. cit., p. 30.

<sup>(4)</sup> Ibid., p. 31.

<sup>(5)</sup> Ibid., pp. 41-43.

STRUCTURE CÉPHALIQUE DES POPULATIONS

loin (1): « en Egypte l'énergie de l'hérédité était supérieure à l'énergie des influences extérieures ».

Les résultats de nos recherches, malgré l'introduction de quelques nuances, ne font que confirmer les conclusions auxquelles Falkenburger parvenait, il y a 16 ans.

#### CONCLUSIONS GÉNÉRALES

L'analyse du matériel publié par la mission égypto-polonaise nous a permis d'établir les points suivants :

- 1. La classification fondée sur la morphologie du massif facial, suivant la méthode préconisée par Falkenburger pour l'étude des crânes, peut être étendue à l'étude des sujets vivants, et la détermination des groupes structuraux peut être faite au moyen d'une clef dichotomique, que nous proposons.
- 2. La population du district occidental d'Egypte est formée, pour la plus grande partie, par des éléments autochtones, connus dans le pays depuis la plus haute antiquité : éléments kamitiques, méditerranéens, et parfois sub-négroïdes; une autre partie de la population comprend des éléments d'affinité orientale (cananéens, bédouins) parmi lesquels on ne compte que quelques rares sujets brachycéphales, d'origine libanaise ou arménienne.
- 3. La population égyptienne non autochtone, étudiée dans le district occidental, renferme les mêmes composants, mais avec un nombre plus élevé de sub-négroïdes aux dépens du taux des Méditerranéens qui est plus faible; la participation du groupe kamitique étant très largement prédominante, ici comme là.
- 4. On retrouve, dans la population moderne de l'Egypte, tous les types connus dans ce pays dès le début de l'époque pharaonique, et

l'on ne note entre les deux périodes que des différences de pourcentage dues à des conditions passagères, sans que les types autochtones aient été altérés par les vicissitudes des invasions survenues au cours des siècles passés. Les Egyptiens d'aujourd'hui peuvent donc légitimement se présenter comme les descendants de ceux qui ont donné au Monde l'une de ses plus anciennes et plus brillantes civilisations.

<sup>(1)</sup> fide E. Schmidt. Uber alt- und neuägyptische Schädel. Archiv für Anthropologie, t. 17, 1888.

# REMARQUES SUR L'ÉCONOMIE

DE LA

# BASSE-NUBIE ÉGYPTIENNE (1)

PAR

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#### INTRODUCTION

La construction du Haut-Barrage (Sadd el-Ali) pose, pour la quatrième fois depuis le début du XX° siècle, le problème de la Basse-Nubie égyptienne.

Certes, lorsqu'il fut inauguré, en 1902, le Barrage d'Assouan donnait naissance, en amont, à un lac artificiel dont la longueur ne dépassait guère 100 kilomètres (Dakka) et dont le niveau maximum atteignait, pendant quelques semaines de l'année, la cote de 106 mètres au-dessus du niveau de la mer (au sud de la première cataracte, le fond du lit du Nil est environ à la cote 85); mais la situation en Basse-Nubie ne fut pas alors considérée comme dramatique.

Bulletin, t. XXXV.

<sup>(1)</sup> Éléments de bibliographie (dans les notes, lorsque nous ne donnons qu'un nom d'auteur, nous renvoyons aux ouvrages suivants):

G. Belzoni, Narrative of the Operations and recent Discoveries in Egypt and Nubia, 2 vol., 3° édition, Londres, 1822.

J. L. Burckhardt, Travels in Nubia, Londres, 1819.

J. Fr. Champollion, dans H. Hartleben, Lettres et Journaux de Champollion le Jeune, 2 vol., Paris, 1909.

Comtesse de Gasparin, Journal d'un voyage au Levant, 3 vol., Paris, 1848.

C. IRBY and J. Mangles, Travels in Egypt and Nubia, Syria and Asia Minor during the years 1817 and 1818, Londres, 1823.

T. Legh, Narrative of a Journey in Egypt and the Country beyond the Cataracts, Londres, 1816.

H. Light, Travels in Egypt, Nubia, Holy Land, Mount Libanon and Cyprus in the year 1814, Londres, 1818.

Elle le devint en 1912, après la première surélévation du Barrage (cote maximum des eaux de retenue : 112 mètres, avec diminution plus lente du plan d'eau pour l'irrigation pérenne de la vallée en aval de la cataracte), lorsque le lac de retenue atteignit Ouadi es-Seboua (à 150 kilomètres au sud d'Assouan).

Elle le fut plus encore après 1934, date de la seconde surélévation (cote maximum du lac: 121 mètres), lorsque la seconde moitié de la Basse-Nubie égyptienne, c'est-à-dire la région comprise entre Ouadi es-Seboua et la frontière soudanaise (à 290 kilomètres d'Assouan) fut à son tour soumise à l'immersion totale de ses terres cultivables, pendant la majeure partie de l'année.

En 1970, après la mise en eau définitive du Haut-Barrage (Sadd el-Ali), le niveau maximum du nouveau lac artificiel sera porté à 182 mètres au-dessus du niveau de la mer; ce lac de 500 kilomètres de long, avec une largeur en certains secteurs de 25 kilomètres, atteindra la troisième cataracte, à 200 kilomètres au sud de la frontière soudanaise : la Nubie aura alors complétement disparu de la carte.

Ainsi les habitants de la Basse-Nubie égyptienne se sont trouvés, avant même la menace qui pèse actuellement sur eux du fait de la construction du Haut-Barrage (Sadd el-Ali), trois fois en face des mêmes problèmes. Tout autre peuple que celui qui habite entre les deux premières cataractes du Nil aurait choisi la solution extrême, celle de l'émigration massive. Les Nubiens, profondément attachés à leur sol natal, ont, eux, préféré s'adapter aux circonstances, en transformant leur genre de vie et en transférant leurs villages sur les bords du lac de retenue. Instruite par ces expériences, la génération actuelle va-t-elle réagir comme ont réagi les précédentes?

Il n'est pas interdit de se poser cette question et d'examiner, à la lumière des informations que nous possédons, ce qu'est réellement la Basse-Nubie, quel est son proche passé et quel est son présent. Cette étude pourra peut-être nous laisser deviner quel sera son avenir immédiat.

Le contexte géographique :

La Basse-Nubie égyptienne est par nature un pays pauvre. Sa situation, entre le parallèle d'Assouan (24° 1'34") et celui de la frontière

soudanaise (22°) (1) la rangerait parmi les pays tropicaux si les déserts des plateaux arabique et libyque ne modifiaient pas totalement ses conditions climatiques.

La vie en Basse-Nubie dépend uniquement de l'eau : l'habitat est groupé sur les bords du Nil ou sur ceux du lac artificiel créé par le Barrage d'Assouan.

Il y a un siècle les villages, ou mieux, les divers hameaux qui constituaient les villages, étaient installés au milieu des champs si la bande cultivable était d'une largeur appréciable ou sur la pente des collines si la plaine était trop étroite. En effet, la Basse-Nubie égyptienne est « caractérisée par une telle étroitesse qu'à maints endroits les eaux du fleuve viennent lécher le bas des versants désertiques, supprimant ainsi la plaine alluviale déjà si menue, si étroite et si discontinue» (2). Cette remarque d'un géographe moderne correspond d'ailleurs aux observations faites par les voyageurs du début du XIXº siècle. Citons par exemple Burckhardt: d'Assouan à Korosko, «la rive orientale est partout mieux adaptée à la culture que la rive occidentale et partout où elle a une largeur suffisante, elle est couverte de riches alluvions déposées par le Nil. Du côté occidental, au contraire, les sables du désert sont violemment transportés jusqu'à l'extrême bord du rivage par les vents du nord-ouest qui dominent durant l'hiver et le printemps; et, généralement, la plaine étroite est cultivée aux seuls endroits où le cours du torrent de sable est arrêté par la montagne. La rive orientale est en conséquence beaucoup plus peuplée que l'occidentale.... Le lit du fleuve est en général beaucoup plus étroit que dans n'importe quelle région d'Egypte et le cours de ses eaux moins entravé par des bancs de sable» (3). Et, après Korosko, Champollion note: «La rive gauche et

<sup>(1)</sup> La frontière entre la République Arabe Unie et la République du Soudan est dans les régions désertiques conventionnelle et suit le 22° parallèle. Dans la vallée du Nil elle passe actuellement à une cinquantaine de kilomètres au nord de Ouadi-Halfa.

<sup>(3)</sup> Hassan Awad, Le Sadd el-Ali, le plus grand réservoir du monde et ses conséquences géographiques, dans Bulletin de la Société de Géographie d'Egypte, t. XXX, p. 8.

<sup>(3)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 21-22.

la rive droite..., présentent un même aspect de désolation : quelques petites bandes de terre, cultivées en dourra, haricots, ou ricin, se montrent ça et là sur le bord du Nil, dans lequel le sable jaune doré arrive de toute part, après avoir enseveli des monticules de grès dont les pointes noircies s'élèvent de loin en loin et annoncent le désert dans toute son horreur» (1).

Ainsi la Nubie est essentiellement, à toutes les époques, constituée de trois paysages :

- 1. de longues étendues que les amas de sable ou les collines granitiques (d'Assouan à Dehmit, Bab Kalabcha) ou gréseuses (partout ailleurs) rendent désertiques;
- 2. d'étroites bandes cultivées le long du rivage (Burckhardt, Travels in Nubia, p. 145, en a vu, en 1813, qui n'avaient que vingt à trente mètres de largeur);
- 3. des bassins plus étendus, notamment celui de Kostamna en 1813 ou ceux qui se trouvent actuellement près des stations de pompage installées en 1934 (Dakka, Allaki, Aniba, Toschké, Abou-Simbel est, Ballana).

#### Le contexte historique :

Pour bien comprendre la Basse-Nubie moderne il est nécessaire de bien déterminer les étapes de son histoire récente.

Avant 1813, la Basse-Nubie, soumise aux gouverneurs de Derr, était pratiquement indépendante et à peu près totalement fermée aux influences civilisatrices. Le lieutenant de la marine danoise, Frédéric-Louis Norden, en 1737, était péniblement arrivé jusqu'à Derr d'où il redescendit promptement à Assouan après ses fameux démêlés avec le Kachef Baram. Après lui (2), mais seulement en 1813, Burckhardt osa s'aventurer,

à dos de chameau jusqu'au Soudan, en parcourant la rive orientale de la Basse-Nubie à l'aller et l'occidentale au retour. Il devait rencontrer deux voyageurs anglais, Legh et Smelt, dont le bateau n'avait pu, comme celui de Norden, aller au-delà de Derr.

Comme Legh et Smelt, Henry Light obtint l'autorisation de faire à cheval une promenade de Derr à Kasr Ibrim (1814). L'année suivante Bankes atteignit la seconde cataracte, suivi, en 1816, par deux missions scientifiques, l'une dirigée par Drovetti et l'autre par Belzoni. Retenons des souvenirs de Belzoni qu'au-delà de Derr les Barabras (Nubiens) ignoraient complètement l'usage de l'argent; fort pauvres et sans besoins excessifs, ils troquaient leurs produits contre d'autres produits nécessaires à leur subsistance. Belzoni revint en Basse-Nubie en 1817, puis d'autres voyageurs isolés prirent le même chemin. En débarrassant Kasr Ibrim des derniers Mamelouks, le fils du Pacha, Ibrahim, avait ouvert les portes de la Nubie. Quand l'expédition du Soudan fut décidée, toute la région entre Assouan et Ouadi-Halfa était déjà rattachée au pouvoir central du Caire. L'autorité du pacha rendit les liaisons plus faciles et les Nubiens s'accoutumèrent aux barques des étrangers qui, pendant l'hiver surtout, abordaient près des sites archéologiques. Progressivement, par des trocs d'un genre nouveau, argent en échange de volailles ou de lait, fusils ou pistolets contre moutons, la civilisation, avec ses avantages et ses inconvénients, pénétra en Nubie. En 1813, ses habitants étaient à peu près nus ou vêtus d'infâmes chiffons; cinquante ans plus tard ils étaient habillés plus décemment.

Entre 1884 et 1899, le conflit qui opposait les Anglais aux Mahdistes du Soudan aboutit à l'occupation de la Nubie par les troupes britanniques. « La révolte du Mahdi, obligeant le Gouvernement (égyptien) à entretenir une grosse armée sur la frontière méridionale, y avait attiré ce qu'on n'avait jamais vu depuis l'antiquité, une population active, sans cesse en mouvement, qu'il fallait renforcer, ravitailler, fournir d'armes et de munitions au fur et à mesure des besoins. Bien que la plupart des objets de nécessité vinssent du Caire et même d'Europe, les habitants du pays, engagés comme domestiques ou comme valets d'armes, avaient eu leur part de l'argent dépensé, part faible en soi, mais considérable si l'on tient compte de leur pauvreté. Ils achetèrent des terres, bâtirent

<sup>(1)</sup> CHAMPOLLION, t. II, p. 201.

<sup>(2)</sup> Les membres de l'Expédition de Bonaparte ne dépassèrent guère le secteur avoisinant Philæ.

des sakiehs pour les arroser, se construisirent des maisons nouvelles, apprirent à apprécier, puis à rechercher les objets antiques que les officiers et les soldats européens leur demandaient. Débôt et Dakkeh souffrirent surtout; la moitié à peine des édifices qu'on y rencontrait en 1883 subsistait en 1899» (1).

Puis vinrent la construction du Barrage d'Assouan (1902) et ses deux surélévations (1912 et 1934), entreprises qui eurent, certes, pour la Basse-Nubie des conséquences pénibles, mais qui précipitèrent aussi une évolution déjà évidente. Les Nubiens multiplièrent les contacts avec les étrangers, aussi bien lorsqu'ils se trouvaient temporairement en Egypte que lorsqu'ils demeuraient dans leurs villages. Les touristes fortunés sillonnèrent le Nil entre les deux cataractes; les autres utilisèrent les bateaux Cook, puis le Sudan Express. Les archéologues furent nombreux à visiter les sites archéologiques ou à y travailler (surtout entre 1907 et 1912 et entre 1929 et 1934). Le gouvernement égyptien, de son côté, s'intéressa de plus près encore à cette province lointaine : deux fois par semaine un bateau-poste effectue les liaisons; une ligne téléphonique fut installée entre Assouan et Ouadi-Halfa; le chef-lieu, dépendant du gouvernorat d'Assouan, fut transféré de Derr à Aniba où furent construits une école secondaire et un hôpital qui traite les maladies graves dépistées par des médecins itinérants; le service de l'irrigation entretient, enfin, une dizaine de stations de pompage qui irriguent et rendent propres à la culture de vastes étendues.

#### Le contexte humain:

Depuis la première étude importante sur la Basse-Nubie, celle de Burckhardt en 1813, la population de la Nubie est pratiquement demeurée la même. Actuellement on distingue encore les Kenous, habitants du Ouadi Kenous, entre Assouan et Ouadi es-Seboua; les Arabes qui peuplent toute la région entre Ouadi es-Seboua et Derr; et les Nouba qui, sans transition aucune, sont établis entre Derr ét, au moins, la seconde cataracte.

Rares sont les habitants du Nord installés en Nubie; ce sont pour la plupart des médecins ou des professeurs pourvus d'une affectation provisoire; quelques techniciens, spécialement dans les stations de pompage, sont originaires d'Assouan et ont généralement des attaches avec la région.

Plus rares encore sont les nomades sédentarisés. Les Bicharin continuent à parcourir les pâturages temporaires du désert oriental; leurs centres d'attraction sont Assouan et Ouadi-Halfa; ils ne font que traverser, à l'occasion, la Basse-Nubie. Les Ababdés ne viennent plus guère sur les rives du Nil nubien. Ceux qui s'étaient établis entre Assouan et Derr avant 1813 (1) sont depuis longtemps « nubianisés », comme les enfants de celui que Belzoni rencontra à Ballana en 1817 (2). Il en est de même pour les descendants des Bosniaques que le Sultan Sélim 1er avaient installés à Kasr Ibrim au XVIe siècle. Quant aux Kerrarish, qui à l'époque de Burckhardt, faisaient « paître leur bétail sur les rives inhabitées du fleuve et sur ses îles, depuis la région au sud de Derr jusqu'à Mahass et Dongola, où l'on dit qu'ils sont plus nombreux qu'en Nubie» (3), il ne semble pas que l'on en trouve encore trace. Et les tribus du désert occidental ont complètement cessé leurs razzias; elles ont même reflué vers les oasis de Kurkur ou de Kharga où elles sont à peu près sédentarisées.

Si les Kenous et les Nouba parlent encore entre eux leurs dialectes, les divers groupes ethniques voient leurs rapports facilités par l'usage de la langue arabe : le développement de l'enseignement primaire, depuis les dernières décennies, n'est pas étranger à cette diffusion de la langue officielle. D'ailleurs, le séjour plus on moins prolongé de la population mâle de la Basse-Nubie en aval de la première cataracte avait, depuis longtemps déjà, contraint les Nubiens à apprendre l'arabe. Certes, rentrés chez eux, ils s'empressaient de revenir à leurs dialectes, surtout sous l'influence des femmes demeurés fidèles aux traditions. A l'heure actuelle, les fillettes, devenues femmes, savent, elles aussi, l'arabe : aussi les dialectes nubiens ne sont-ils plus aujourd'hui qu'une simple langue de complément.

<sup>(1)</sup> G. Maspero, Rapports sur la consolidation des temples (de Nubie), t. I, texte, p. VIII-IX.

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 148.— (2) Belzoni, t. I, p. 333.— (3) Burckhardt, p. 30.

Les particularismes locaux sont, eux aussi, en train de disparaître. Tous les voyageurs du XIX° siècle s'accordent, en effet, pour dire que, même à l'intérieur de chacune des trois grandes régions de la Nubie (Kenous, Ouadi el-Arab, Nouba), il n'y avait guère de rapports de bon voisinage. Certes, les querelles violentes, comme celles que relatent Burckhardt et Legh (1), étaient rares; mais l'absence de routes, les difficultés de navigation, la stricte délimitation des terres de culture, l'impossibilité ou l'inexistence des échanges commerciaux, l'anarchie administrative faisaient que les villages se repliaient sur eux-mêmes. Chaque communauté avait tant de peine à survivre qu'elle ignorait sa voisine et ne s'en souciait que si elle était attaquée dans ses biens ou dans ses personnes (2). L'évolution lente constatée au XIX° siècle s'est précipitée après la construction du Barrage d'Assouan et la mise en place d'une administration centralisée.

Le brassage effectué par l'école secondaire, le service militaire ou la vie en commun au nord de la première cataracte ont plus ou moins façonné une patrie nubienne; mais si les rivalités locales sont oubliées, chaque Nubien a néanmoins conservé l'amour du sol ingrat de son hameau, des maisons de son village, du paysage particulier que ses yeux d'enfant ont fixé à jamais.

Cet amour passionné de la terre natale explique le caractère temporaire de l'émigration nubienne. Il n'en a pas toujours été ainsi.

Avant même le début du XIX° siècle, les habitants de la Basse-Nubie, chassés de leur pays par l'extrême misère ou par la rapacité des Kachefs de Derr, fuyaient déjà vers l'Egypte. Vivant-Denon en signale à Rosette et au Caire: « on les emploie le plus ordinairement à garder les magasins, et les chantiers de bois; ils se vêtissent d'une pièce de laine blanche, gagnent peu, se nourrissent de presque rien, et restent attachés et fidèles à leurs maîtres» (3). Burckhardt avant son voyage en Nubie en avait

rencontré dans toute l'Egypte: « Les Nubiens font aussi une liqueur appelée Bouza, qui ressemble beaucoup à la bière.... Au Caire, dans toutes les villes et dans tous les villages importants de Haute-Egypte, il y a des boutiques pour vendre la Bouza: elles sont exclusivement tenues par des Nubiens» (1); indépendamment, note-t-il encore, du fait que: « de nombreux Kenous sont venus s'installer en Haute-Egypte ces années dernières» (2).

Toutesois Burckhardt lui-même a remarqué deux formes d'émigration nubienne: temporaire et définitive: « Comme tous les villages que j'ai déjà traversés (depuis Assouan), Gyrshé (Gerf-Hussein) est assez pauvrement habité; les deux-tiers de ses maisons sont abandonnés. Le pays a été ruiné par les Mamelouks qui demeurèrent ici plusieurs mois, quand ils battirent en retraite devant les troupes turques de Mohammed Ali.... Une terrible famine sévit après leur retraite, pendant laquelle un tiers de la population de Nubie périt à cause d'une misère totale; le reste se retira en Egypte et s'établit dans des villages entre Assouan et Esneh où un grand nombre d'entre eux fut emporté par la petite vérole. Les habitants actuels sont revenus quelques mois seulement avant ma visite dans cette région et ont commencé à ensemencer les champs après la crue; mais nombreux sont leurs congénères qui continuent à vivre en Egypte» (3).

Cette émigration temporaire due aux vicissitudes de la politique se doublait déjà, à la même époque, d'une autre forme d'émigration qui s'est poursuivie jusqu'à nous. Citons encore Burckhardt : « (Les Nubiens sont) ardemment attachés à leur sol natal. Un grand nombre d'entre eux vont chaque année au Caire où ils travaillent généralement comme portiers.... Après être restés six ou huit ans, ils reviennent dans leur Ouadi natal avec la petite fortune qu'ils ont réalisée, bien qu'ils sachent

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 6 et p. 138-139; Legh, p. 95-96. Pour les rivalités de village à village, cf. Licht, p. 90-91 (Débod) et Belzoni, t. I, p. 323 (Ballana et Ferayg).

<sup>(\*)</sup> L'islamisation de la Nubie est complète; il n'y a plus de minorités religieuses depuis le XIII° siècle, ce qui renforce l'unité de chaque village.

<sup>(3)</sup> VIVANT-DENON, Voyage dans la Basse et la Haute-Egypte, pendant les campagnes du Général Bonaparte, 1802, p. 48.

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 143.

<sup>(2)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 26.

<sup>(3)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 11-12. Pour des Nubiens établis entre Esna et Gebel Silsileh vers le milieu du XIX° siècle, cf. Souvenir d'André Melly, Lettres d'Egypte et de Nubie, septembre 1850 à janvier 1851, Londres, 1852, p. 59-60.

pertinemment que les seuls plaisirs qu'ils peuvent attendre en échange de ceux du Caire, sont du pain de dourra et une chemise de lin» (1).

Cette forme d'émigration temporaire n'a cessé de se généraliser en Basse-Nubie; elle s'est tout particulièrement développée après la construction du Barrage d'Assouan. Les portiers des ambassades ou des grands immeubles, les serviteurs (souffraguis) des restaurants ou des grands hôtels, à Assouan, Louxor, Le Caire ou Alexandrie, viennent presque tous d'un village de Basse-Nubie. Toutefois, contrairement à ce que l'on pourrait penser, à l'intérieur d'un même établissement ils n'appartiennent pas forcément à la même famille ou au même village. Pour ne citer que deux exemples, les souffraguis du restaurant Groppi au Caire viennent de Dehmit, de Dakka-est ou de Ouadi es-Seboua; les trois portiers de notre immeuble sont de Tomâs, d'Aniba et d'Adendan (2).

Cette communauté nubienne à l'intérieur d'une même maison se retrouve dans une même ville et accroît les liens de solidarité entre les différents éléments d'une population qui persiste, qu'on le veuille ou non, à se considérer comme isolée au nord de la première cataracte. Au Caire, les Nubiens se sont groupés dans le faubourg d'Embabeh; les nouveaux venus y trouvent assistance et logement provisoire en attendant l'emploi que les anciens leur procureront.

Ainsi une grande partie de la population mâle de la Nubie « s'expatrie » dès l'adolescence pour ne revenir au pays qu'à l'approche de la vieillesse. Mais cette forme d'émigration n'est pas un phénomène récent; elle n'est que la généralisation d'une tradition bien établie, vieille de deux siècles au moins. Autrefois, les anciens Nubiens ne cherchaient dans l'émigration temporaire qu'un remède immédiat contre leur misère excessive; aujourd'hui, les habitants de la Basse-Nubie, confrontés à des difficultés économiques insurmontables, ont organisé leur vie de telle façon que leur « expatriation » prolongée est pratiquement devenue l'une des caractéristiques essentielles de leur genre de vie. Ils ressemblent,

toutes proportions gardées, aux «Barcelonnettes» des Basses-Alpes qui, après avoir fait fortune au Mexique dans la vente des tissus, reviennent au pays natal, un pays presque aussi ingrat que l'est la Nubie, finir leurs jours dans la plus grande aisance. Une différence toutefois : les Nubiens n'emmènent que très rarement avec eux leurs femmes et leurs jeunes enfants (1).

Voilà pourquoi un recensement précis de la population de la Basse-Nubie égyptienne est une entreprise délicate. Nous connaissons pour la période actuelle, le nombre des habitations (36.000), des familles (24.863) (2); mais l'évaluation du nombre des habitants est variable : 48.000, 60.000 ou 70.000.

Quoi qu'il en soit, il n'est peut-être pas inutile de revenir à Burckhardt qui écrivait en 1813 : « J'estime à 100.000 âmes la totalité de la population de la Nubie, d'Assouan à la frontière méridionale de Mahass» (3). Ce qui revenait à dire qu'à cette époque la Basse-Nubie égyptienne comptait environ 50.000 habitants.

En comparant ce chiffre aux données précédentes, on constate que la population de la Basse-Nubie est restée sensiblement stationnaire à une période où celle de la République Arabe Unie a considérablement augmenté. Il serait sans doute intéressant de chercher à établir les raisons profondes de cette différence, parce qu'il est évident qu'elle ne résulte pas uniquement des conditions économiques.

#### I.—L'ÉCONOMIE DE LA BASSE-NUBIE AU XIX° SIÈCLE

#### 1. Conditions générales :

L'économie de la Basse-Nubie au XIX° siècle était essentiellement fonction d'un certain nombre d'éléments qu'il est nécessaire de mettre en valeur.

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 147.

<sup>(2)</sup> L'émigration temporaire des Nubiens d'Egypte au Soudan est assez peu fréquente. Elle concerne d'ailleurs uniquement Ouadi-Halfa où les possibilités sont limitées.

<sup>(1)</sup> Les Nubiens se marient toujours entre eux. Femmes et filles demeurent au village.

<sup>(2)</sup> Tous ces chiffres sont tirés de documents officiels reproduits par la presse. Les chiffres les plus récents (novembre 1962) sont les suivants : 16.860 familles et 48.028 habitants.

<sup>(3)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 148.

(a) La propriété du sol : Elle est, au début du siècle, assez mal déterminée. En effet, le paysan était alors, semble-t-il, propriétaire de sa terre. Toutefois, à en croire Burckhardt, les Kachefs possédaient une grande partie du sol nubien : « Quand une personne riche a une fille d'âge convenable, les Kachefs (gouverneurs de Nubie) la demandent en mariage; le père n'ose refuser et, quelquefois même, il s'estime flatté par cet honneur. Mais il est bientôt ruiné par son puissant gendre qui lui extorque tout son bien sous le couvert de cadeaux à sa propre fille. Tous les Kachefs ont ainsi des épouses dans presque tous les villages importants» (1). Ce fut ainsi que Lepsius, le 27 novembre 1843, rencontra le Kachef de Derr, Hassan, qui «n'avait eu pas moins de soixantequatre épouses» et, probablement, environ «deux cents enfants» (2). Ainsi devait-il exister, sur les terres personnelles des Kachefs, tout un groupe de tenanciers ou de fermiers, à demi-serfs, sur lesquels les Kachefs avaient droit de vie et de mort (3). A la fin du règne de Mohamed Ali (1848), la comtesse de Gasparin s'émeut des impositions que le paysan Nubien devait verser au Pacha, mais elle note aussi que «le fait de la possession le relève» (4), ce qui implique que ses terres lui appartenaient, alors qu'en Egypte elles appartenaient toutes au Pacha. Mais l'on peut se demander si la comtesse de Gasparin n'a pas mal interprété ce qu'on a bien voulu lui dire. Avec les derniers Kachefs disparut probablement le système féodal et la terre fut entièrement libérée au plus tard sous Mohamed Saïd (1858).

(b) Les impôts: Ils pesaient lourdement sur la masse paysanne. Jusqu'au moment où le fils du Pacha, Ibrahim, chassa les derniers Mamelouks, les impôts étaient dûs aux Kachefs; à partir de 1816, ils furent levés au nom du Pacha d'Egypte, mais les Kachefs reçurent normalement un dédommagement (1). Quel que fût le gouvernant, on employait la manière forte pour lever l'impôt; les paysans étaient toujours pressés par une troupe armée (2). Bienheureux encore s'ils n'étaient pas taxés deux fois, par le Pacha et par le Kachef!

L'impôt ou *miri* se payait, surtout au début du XIX° siècle, en nature; après l'introduction de l'argent dans toute la Nubie, un impôt supplémentaire fut exigé en espèces. Le versement se faisait donc en grains, sur la récolte d'hiver comme sur la récolte d'été (3), en moutons (4), vaches (5) ou chameaux (6).

L'impôt était un impôt foncier, mais il ne se calculait pas « à partir d'une certaine étendue de sol, mais à partir de chaque sakkieh, ou roue à pots employée par les indigènes, après l'inondation et durant l'été, pour l'irrigation» (7). Et Burckhardt précise : « Dans les villages pauvres, une seule sakkieh est la propriété commune de six ou huit paysans; mais les habitants plus fortunés en ont plusieurs.... Le taux de taxation est différent selon les endroits; ainsi (en Basse-Nubie), chaque sakkieh paie annuellement six moutons gras et six tas de dourra» (8). Au milieu du XIX° siècle, pour chaque sakkieh il fallait verser 350 piastres (9).

Une seconde imposition frappait chaque dattier. En 1813, « les gouverneurs prennent deux régimes de dattes de chaque palmier-dattier, quelle que soit la quantité que l'arbre peut produire» (10). Quelques années plus tard, à Derr, chaque palmier « productif ou non, vert ou

<sup>(1)</sup> BURCKHARDT, p. 139.

<sup>(2)</sup> LEPSIUS, Letters from Egypt, Nubia ..., p. 127.

<sup>(3)</sup> Belzon, t. I, p. 128: « Le Kachef passe son temps à aller d'un lieu à l'autre, pour percevoir lui-même ses revenus; et dans chaque endroit où il va, il a une maison et une femme. C'est un maître absolu qui fait ce qui lui plaît: il n'y a pas de lois pour le retenir et ici la vie d'un homme est considérée comme ne valant pas plus que celle d'un chat chez nous. Si le Kachef ne possède pas ce qu'il désire, il le prend partout où il peut le trouver: si on lui oppose un refus, il emploie la force; si on lui résiste, on est assassiné.»

<sup>(4)</sup> Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 184.

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 136, note; Rüppell, Reisen in Nubien ...., p. 23.

<sup>(3)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 8 et p. 136, note; Light, p. 95; Belzoni, t. I, p. 109.

<sup>(3)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 136, note.

<sup>(4)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 153.

<sup>(5)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 9.

<sup>(6)</sup> BURCKHARDT, p. 136, note.

<sup>(7)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 137.

<sup>(8)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 137.

<sup>(9)</sup> Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 184.

<sup>(10)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 137.

REMARQUES SUR L'ÉCONOMIE DE LA BASSE-NUBIE

sec, payait 25 paras (1) d'imposition annuelle au Pacha» (2). En 1848, le taux d'imposition était monté à une piastre 10 paras par palmier (3).

Quoi qu'il en ait été, toutes ces impositions maintenaient les paysans nubiens dans la plus noire misère et ne les engageaient guère à accroître le rendement de leur lopin de terre. En revanche, elle donnaient aux gouvernants des revenus considérables, évalués par Burckhardt, en 1813, à une rentrée annuelle de 8 à 10.000 livres (4).

(c) Les besoins du pays: Dans une région aussi pauvre que la Nubie les besoins de la masse paysanne n'étaient pas considérables. Il suffisait de faire pousser les cultures vivrières indispensables, d'élever le bétail et la volaille utiles et d'obtenir, sur la seule production commercialisée, les dattes, un excédent qui permît, par troc, d'obtenir le complément nécessaire. Ce complément, nous le verrons, était toujours le même, du grain (la récolte, bien maigre, ne suffisant pas) et du sel. En effet, le problème du vêtement ne se posait guère et le seul luxe, celui des armes (5), pouvait être, à l'occasion, satisfait par une opération heureuse.

De toute manière, il importait de ne pas attirer sur soi l'attention : car si les impositions étaient lourdes, leur répartition était bien souvent arbitraire ; mieux valait vivre pauvrement que de voir le fruit de ses peines emporté par les collecteurs d'impôts. En cas de disette, provoquée

par une mauvaise récolte ou par la guerre, il ne restait plus qu'à mourir ou à s'expatrier, au moins temporairement.

#### 2. L'AGRICULTURE :

(a) Les méthodes de culture : Elles étaient presque semblables au nord et au sud de la seconde cataracte.

Le sol cultivable était le limon de la crue; mais son rendement était fonction de son arrosage, la latitude et la configuration générale de la vallée du Nil nubien augmentant considérablement le coefficient d'évaporation.

D'autre part, les conditions de l'inondation n'étaient pas les mêmes, en Basse-Nubie et en Egypte. Entre les deux premières cataractes la vallée du Nil n'était en somme qu'un couloir où le fleuve coulait assez rapidement (1). Aussi, note Burckhardt, «les eaux n'atteignent pas une hauteur suffisante pour inonder toute la vallée» (2); elle ne s'étalaient pas aussi largement et ne restaient pas aussi longtemps qu'en Egypte même.

Les Nubiens cherchèrent naturellement à remédier à ces inconvénients. En plusieurs points, en particulier à Abou-Hor, sur la rive orientale, ils construisirent des jetées en pierre pour retenir plus longtemps le flot de la crue (3). Ils creusèrent, d'autre part, des canaux, mais ceux-ci étaient rares parce que la superficie cultivable n'était pas assez étendue. Burckhardt dut en traverser, notamment à Allaki (4), à des endroits où la plaine s'élargissait, mais ils étaient négligés et ils s'envasaient.

<sup>(1)</sup> Il y avait quarante paras dans une piastre.

<sup>(2)</sup> CHAMPOLLION, t. II, p. 206.

<sup>(3)</sup> Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 184.

<sup>(4)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 136.

<sup>(5)</sup> La «longue lance dont le fer plat et tranchant ressemble à deux navettes de tisserand jointes ensemble (et, attaché) à leur avant-bras droit, (le) petit poignard à manche de bois, passé dans une gaine de cuir et retenu par un bracelet de lanières (Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 182)», ainsi que le «bouclier de peau de crocodile (Belzoni, t. I, p. 104)», «de buffle (Light, p. 97)», ou «d'hippopotame (Burckhardt, p. 57)», et les épées « de forme romaine, mais plus longues et pendues derrière eux (Light, même référence)» étaient troquées ou vendues par les Arabes Sheyga qui se les procuraient au Soudan, ou, c'était le cas pour les épées fabriquées en Allemagne, par des marchands en Egypte même. Les fusils, plus modernes, et les pistolets étaient réservés aux Kachefs ou aux Nubiens les plus fortunés.

<sup>(1)</sup> Le fleuve bouillonnait autour des îles granitiques de Bab Kalabcha; mais il y avait aussi des petits rapides à Abou-Hor (Bab Abou-Hor, entre Kalabcha et Dendour). « A cet endroit, il y a un petit chellal (cataracte) qui laisse seulement un étroit passage à l'ouest, le reste du lit étant rempli de petits rochers. En face d'Abou-Hor, se trouvent les ruines d'un château arabe en briques crues construit, dirait-on, pour commander le passage (Light, p. 67)». Burckhardt signale aussi ces rochers dans le lit du fleuve à Abou-Hor (p. 111).

<sup>(2)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 140.

<sup>(3)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 111.

<sup>(4)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 14 et 140.

Aussi, constate Burckhardt, «l'irrigation en Nubie repose-t-elle entièrement sur les sakkiehs ou roues à pots» (1). Et il ajoute : « Dans les villages pauvres, une seule sakkieh est la propriété commune de six ou huit paysans; mais les habitants plus fortunés en ont plusieurs. Le nombre des sakkiehs entre Assouan et Ouadi-Halfa, ou entre la première et la seconde cataracte, est de 6 ou 700. Le sol arrosé par une sakkieh, qui requiert le travail alterné de huit ou dix vaches, comprend entre 3 et 5 feddans égyptiens» (2). Champollion (3) nous fait savoir que la sakkieh était mue par deux animaux, qui, selon la comtesse de Gasparin (4), étaient remplacés, au bout de douze heures, par une autre paire de vaches, la machine tournant jour et nuit.

Les sakkiehs « montent l'eau, soit du fleuve, soit de puits creusés dans la plaine riveraine; car on trouve partout l'eau en abondance en creusant à une profondeur de 15 à 20 pieds (5 à 7 mètres) après l'inondation;.... mais l'eau de ces puits a une saveur désagréable, saumâtre; et même la meilleure est très lourde et difficile à digérer» (5).

Dans certains cas particuliers, lorsque les terrains cultivés étaient trop petits ou trop éloignés des sakkiehs, les Nubiens se servaient de vases en terre cuite ou d'outres pour arroser leurs maigres cultures (6); aucun voyageur n'a vu de chadouf au-delà de la première cataracte.

Burckhardt remarque que les Nubiens « ne labourent pas leurs champs après le départ de l'inondation, comme on le fait en Egypte» (7). Ils se contentaient de niveler la surface de la terre avant de l'ensemencer avec un instrument primitif manié par deux hommes; cet instrument est décrit et dessiné par Belzoni et ses compagnons, Irby et Mangles (8).

Cette absence d'araire s'explique peut-être par l'exiguïté des parcelles; en tout cas, la houe devait couramment être employée par les Nubiens. En effet, Burckhardt s'est aussi intéressé à la distribution de l'eau : « Pour que le sol soit bien arrosé, les champs sont divisés en de nombreux petits carrés de dix pieds de côté (3 m 50 environ) limités par des bordures élevées pour retenir l'eau qui est amenée par de petites rigoles » (1). Or, pour creuser ces rigoles et faire des bordures, la houe est l'instrument nécessaire, encore utilisé par tous les paysans de la vallée du Nil.

Nous avons peu de renseignements sur la manière dont étaient faites les récoltes. Seule la comtesse de Gasparin note que l'orge est arrachée : « Dans un sol aussi léger, arracher donne moins de peine que couper » (2).

- (b) Le cycle agricole: Les conditions climatiques (ensoleillement permanent, excessive rareté des vents violents) et la grande fertilité naturelle du sol de la vallée permettaient, dès le début du XIX° siècle, de faire, chaque année, deux ou quelquesois trois récoltes sur le même terrain; il suffisait de veiller à l'arrosage régulier des plantations, surtout à partir du mois de janvier. Aussi l'année agricole se divisait-elle de la manière suivante:
  - septembre-octobre, avant même la fin de l'inondation, on semait le doura qu'on récoltait en décembre et janvier.
- janvier, ensemencement avec de l'orge, quelques espèces de haricots dont le loubia. Moisson de l'orge à partir de la mi-mars.
- fin avril, nouvelle semence de doura; la «récolte d'été» se faisait en juillet. Mais cette troisième récolte n'était possible que sur les terres les plus fertiles (3).
- fin juillet-août-septembre-début octobre : la crue.

Toutefois nous n'avons aucun renseignement sur les méthodes d'assolement. Le limon du Nil est si fertile qu'on pouvait sans peine,

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 140.

<sup>(2)</sup> Entre un et deux hectares, environ — Burckhardt, p. 137.

<sup>(3)</sup> Champollion, t. II, p. 188.

<sup>(4)</sup> Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 189.

<sup>(5)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 22.

<sup>(6)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 137.

<sup>(7)</sup> BURCKHARDT, p. 140.

<sup>(8)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 149; Irby and Mangles, p. 56.

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 22-23.

<sup>(2)</sup> Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 226.

<sup>(3)</sup> Renseignements fournis par Burckhardt, p. 22-23 et p. 139-140. Bulletin, t. XXXV.

grâce au renouvellement annuel et régulier des dépôts de la crue, ensemencer le même champ avec les mêmes graines plusieurs fois de suite. Et, dans un pays aussi pauvre, il était impossible de pratiquer la jachère.

#### (c) Les ennemis des paysans :

- au début du XIX° siècle le Kachef agissait comme un despote. Burckhardt raconte que l'un d'eux fit couper l'orge encore verte d'un champ sous le prétexte fallacieux que les pastèques y auraient mieux réussi. Il emporta l'orge pour ses chameaux et ses chevaux en échange de quelques graines de pastèques pour le nouvel ensemencement (1).
- Mais le paysan nubien avait d'autres ennemis : au moment de la moisson s'abattait souvent sur les récoltes « un immense vol de moineaux que les efforts conjugués des enfants dans les villages ne peuvent pas toujours garder à distance» (2).
- Il y avait aussi les sauterelles qui, surtout vers la première cataracte, causaient d'épouvantables ravages (3).
- Enfin « tous les champs de doura et d'orge sont souvent détruits par une sorte de petit ver qui monte dans la tige de ces plantes» (4).
- (d) Les productions agricoles : Les Nubiens ne semaient que ce qui était nécessaire à leur propre subsistance.
- céréales : le doura (sorgho) était la principale culture de la Basse-Nubie, où sa consommation dépassait les possibilités de production; on l'échangeait contre toute sorte d'autres produits : orge, dattes, moutons, œufs, volaille, charbon de bois, alun, et il était, au moins au début du XIX° siècle, l'un des deux éléments essentiels de l'impôt en nature. Il était cultivé en hiver (octobre-janvier) et aussi, parfois, en été (avril-juillet). Toutefois la culture d'hiver se composait généralement de 3/4 d'orge et 1/4 de blé (5).

Le sorgho était consommé cuit sous forme de pains dont la farine était mal moulue. Ces pains grossiers, sans sel, étaient généralement minces, mal levés et à peine cuits; ils étaient servis avec du lait caillé, aigre ou sucré (1). Les tiges du doura étaient mises à sécher sur les feuilles de palmier qui constituaient le toit des maisons; durant tout l'été ces tiges formaient l'alimentation unique du bétail (2).

Le dokhen (millet) n'était cultivé qu'en hiver et dans une proportion moindre que le doura. On s'en servait aussi pour faire des galettes (3).

L'orge était la céréale de printemps (janvier-mars). Elle était mangée verte dans des potages ou échangée contre du doura (4). Elle servait aussi à faire la bouza « qui ressemble beaucoup à la bière ; elle est faite avec du doura ou avec de l'orge, mais la meilleure est fournie par cette dernière. Elle est d'une couleur pâle et trouble, et très nourrissante» (5).

Le blé était rare (6); on le semait parfois, au printemps, en même temps que l'orge.

- féculents: ils étaient semés au printemps et récoltés en mars-avril. C'étaient des haricots (kasherangag) et des haricots loubia dont les feuilles, quand elles étaient bouillies, donnaient aussi un potage très estimé par les Nubiens, des pois, des lentilles ou du lupin (termès); celui-ci était cultivé sur la pente de la berge du fleuve, plus humide et moins exposée au soleil (7).
  - autre culture alimentaire : la pastèque (8).
- plantes « industrielles» : le tabac, culture de printemps, se trouvait partout en Basse-Nubie. « Il conserve, quand il est séché, sa couleur

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 94-95.

<sup>(2)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 140. Les moineaux « dévorent au moins un tiers de la moisson » (Burckhardt, p. 24).

<sup>(3)</sup> Light, p. 56 (à Philæ, le 11 mai 1814).

<sup>(4)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 140.

<sup>(5)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 137.

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 7 et 143; Light, p. 97; Belzoni, t. I, p. 133; Irby and Mangles, p. 33.

<sup>(2)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 22 et 141.

<sup>(3)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 22.

<sup>(4)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 140.

<sup>(5)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 143.

<sup>(6)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 23: «J'ai rarement vu du blé»; Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 226.

<sup>(7)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 23; Champollion, t. II, p. 185 et 201; Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 187, 190 et 213.

<sup>(8)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 23 et 94-95; Irby and Mangles, p. 8 (?) et 45.

verte et ressemble exactement à celui des montagnes du bord oriental de la Mer Morte. Le tabac forme le luxe principal de toutes les classes; il est soit fumé, soit mélangé à du salpêtre et chiqué en le plaçant entre les gencives inférieures et la lèvre» (1).

Le coton est signalé un peu partout par les voyageurs de 1813 (Burckhardt) et de 1816 (Belzoni) entre Kénah et Dongola, mais en très faible quantité. En Basse-Nubie il était surtout cultivé entre Afyeh (région de Derr) et Abou-Simbel, spécialement à Afyeh (2) et à Forgundi (3). Il était échangé à Derr contre du doura ou tissé pour en faire des vêtements grossiers.

(e) Arbres et arbustes: Les rives du Nil nubien étaient très boisées au XIX<sup>e</sup> siècle. Mais si Champollion y vit quelques sycomores (4) et la comtesse de Gasparin des palmiers-doum (5), tous les voyageurs s'accordent pour en vanter les palmiers-dattiers. Champollion lui-même s'extasia notamment sur les dattiers de Derr « les plus hauts palmiers que nous eussions encore vus» (6).

Les palmiers-dattiers étaient une source de revenus considérable. Une fois l'impôt payé (en nature au début du XIX° siècle, en espèces plus tard), le Nubien était maître de ses fruits. Il en troquait (7) ou vendait une quantité importante (au prix fixé par les agents du gouvernement) (8); le reste était réservé à sa consommation personnelle. La datte était, pour une région qui ne connaissait pas la canne à sucre, l'un des éléments essentiels de la nourriture; elle se mangeait fraîche ou sèche. Fréquem-

ment offertes en cadeaux aux voyageurs enclins eux-mêmes à des largesses, les dattes pouvaient être aussi réduites en « une sorte de pâte et conservées dans de grands vases d'argile cuite au soleil» (1) ou transformées en une sorte de gelée (2) qui servait à adoucir le lait caillé. On en tirait aussi « une eau-de-vie douce distillée à partir des dattes, très prisée par les Nubiens» (3), l'araki. Enfin les Nubiens envoyaient encore au nord d'Assouan « de jeunes palmiers-dattiers parce que les arbres qui poussent en Egypte à partir d'un noyau sont bientôt dégénérés» (4).

Ça et là poussaient les tamaris, « verdure qui contraste avec le sable jaune sombre » (5), le ricin (6) et le sant (acacia sant ou mimosa) (7). Du sant on pouvait recueillir de la gomme arabique (8); les graines étaient « d'abord envoyées au Caire et puis embarquées pour l'Europe, où elles servent pour le tannage » (9). Enfin un autre arbuste buissonneux le séné (senna mekke) poussait à peu près partout sur les terres inondables : « les paysans sont seuls à l'employer, parce qu'ils sont très avertis de ses propriétés médicales » (10). Seul le séné récolté par les Kerrarish dans les montagnes orientales formait un article d'exportation (11).

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 140.

<sup>(2)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 121.

<sup>(3)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 36.

<sup>(4)</sup> CHAMPOLLION, t. II, p. 185 et 206.

<sup>(5)</sup> Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 190 et 191; voir aussi Burckhardt, p. 23.

<sup>(6)</sup> Champollion, t. II, p. 220. Le créateur de l'Egyptologie ne manqua pas de s'informer sur le nombre de dattiers qui poussaient dans la région de Derr : «il m'assura qu'il y en existait 700.000 (sauf exagération)» (Снамрошном, t. II, p. 205-206).

<sup>(7)</sup> Contre du doura, du lin grossier ou des mélayahs (Burckhardt, p. 29).

<sup>(8)</sup> CHAMPOLLION, t. II, p. 206.

<sup>(1)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 137.

<sup>(2)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 144; Light, p. 72.

<sup>(3)</sup> Light, p. 86 et note; voir aussi Champollion, t. II, p. 205 et 220; Belzoni, t. I, p. 335; Irby and Mangles, p. 53; Burckhardt, p. 143; Legh, p. 69.

<sup>(4)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 29. Champollion nous apprend (t. II, p. 206) qu'en Basse-Nubie « la grande masse des palmiers se composait de pieds mâles, les palmiers femelles étant moins nombreux proportionnellement qu'au-dessous des cataractes ».

<sup>(5)</sup> IRBY and MANGLES, p. 17; BURCKHARDT, p. 23.

<sup>(6)</sup> CHAMPOLLION, t. II, p. 201.

<sup>(7)</sup> Champollion, t. II, p. 206 — Burckhardt, (p. 23) indique que le sant pousse partout à l'état sauvage sur les rives du fleuve. — Description dans Irby and Mangles, p. 7.

<sup>(8)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 117; Irby and Mangles, p. 18.

<sup>(9)</sup> IRBY and MANGLES, p. 14-15.

Purckhardt, p. 23; Vivant-Denon, Voyage dans la Basse et la Haute-Egypte, pendant les campagnes du Général Bonaparte, p. 132. — S'agit-il du Cassia Absus ou Senna quadrifolia, utilisé pour le traitement des ophtalmies (F. Cailliaud, Voyage à Méroé et au Fleuve Blanc, t. IV, p. 315-317, n° 6) ou des autres variétés de séné, purgatives (Cailliaud, op. cit., t. IV, p. 317-318, n° 7 et 8)?

dont parle Light (p. 96): «La chevelure (des femmes) est ointe avec l'huile

La vigne était pratiquement inconnue des Nubiens; elle ne poussait guère qu'à Derr (1). A Korosko, Irby et Mangles goûtèrent des fruits sauvages bien difficiles à identifier; ils ressemblaient à des «blueberries», mais ils étaient ronds (2).

Enfin les Nubiens buvaient une sorte de café fait avec le grain torréfié d'un petit arbuste, le kerkedan, buisson qui croissait surtout au sud de la Basse-Nubie: « alors le café est servi, ou plutôt un ersatz de cette boisson; il n'est pas d'une saveur désagréable. Ils l'appellent gargadan; c'est un petit grain noir, ressemblant à peu près à notre graine de colza; ils le font griller et le broient comme du café. Cela mettrait dans l'embarras les gens qui ne sont pas connaisseurs si on leur demandait quelle est la différence» (3).

(f) Végétaux divers: Il est certain qu'à la limite des terres cultivées une végétation naturelle, sauvage, couvrait encore de faibles étendues: alfa, petites graminées, plantes grasses. Croissaient aussi des coloquinthes, que les Nubiens utilisaient comme combustible (tinder) (4) et, dans leur voisinage, un arbuste très fréquent en Basse-Nubie, l'oshour: « cette plante produit un fruit à l'intérieur duquel des fibres soyeuses enveloppent la graine» (5). Les feuilles sont un poison pour les chameaux et quand on coupe les tiges, il s'en échappe un liquide laiteux qui, dit-on, est nuisible pour les yeux.

#### 3. L'éLEVAGE:

(a) Généralités : Il ne peut guère y avoir de communauté agricole sans élevage. Toutefois le problème du bétail en Basse-Nubie était

directement lié à celui de la faible étendue des terres cultivables par rapport au chiffre de la population. Aussi ne nous étonnons pas si la première remarque des voyageurs concerne l'absence de fourrage naturel, ce fameux barsim qui fut toujours, en Egypte, l'élément essentiel de la nourriture des troupeaux et la plante nécessaire à l'assolement biennal (1).

Le Basse-Nubie manquait donc de terres à pâture, ce qui limitait automatiquement le nombre et l'importance des troupeaux. Aussi les Nubiens n'avaient-ils qu'un cheptel des plus réduits : les bêtes pouvant assurer le fonctionnement des sakkiehs et celles qui leur apportaient un complément de nourriture ou un produit secondaire nécessaire. Posséder cinq moutons était en certains endroits une exception (2).

Cet élevage, par nature extensif, ne pouvait donc être considéré que comme un faible appoint à l'économie, déjà médiocre, des villages de Basse-Nubie. Un bétail négligé n'est que d'un faible rapport; et le bétail nubien ne mangeait pas toujours à sa faim. En effet, dès que la récolte d'hiver avait suffisamment poussé, les animaux les plus utiles, ceux qui travaillaient, avaient droit au fourrage vert. Après la première récolte, les autres paissaient dans les chaumes, après avoir vainement cherché leur pâture en bordure des terres cultivées. En été, toutes les bêtes vivaient des tiges séchées que les Nubiens se trouvaient dans l'obligation de conserver précieusement et de distribuer avec parcimonie.

(b) Le bétail: Le nombre des bovins nécessaires pour tourner les sakkiehs, et uniquement pour cela puisque la terre nubienne ne se labourait pas, ne devait pas s'élever à 3.000 puisqu'il y avait à peu près 700 sakkiehs, entre la première et la seconde cataracte, et qu'il devait y avoir quatre bœufs ou vaches par sakkieh. Ces animaux étaient si utiles qu'ils jouissaient d'un traitement de faveur : le Kachef n'en réclamait jamais lorsqu'il collectait les impôts; aucun voyageur ne signale qu'on en mangeait, même lorsque l'animal était jeune, à l'exception du cas précis de la mort d'un proche parent : « dans les familles des

du cassia dont chaque village a une petite plantation». Aucun voyageur, en dehors de F. Cailliaud (op. cit., t. IV, p. 300 et 318-319 n° 10), ne mentionne le cassia Sabak dont les gousses servaient à la préparation des peaux en Nubie.

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 144.

<sup>(2)</sup> IRBY and MANGLES, p. 8.

<sup>(3)</sup> Irby and Mangles, p. 33. — Voir aussi Belzoni, t. I, p. 112; Burckhardt, p. 46.

<sup>(4)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 39.

<sup>(5)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 39. — Cf. aussi Norden, Voyage d'Egypte et de Nubie, 3 vol., Paris, 1795-1798, tome I, pl. LIX et tome III, p. 30-31.

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 22, signale qu'on ne trouve plus de barsim au sud de Kéna.

<sup>(3)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 153: « un vieil homme avait cinq moutons ce qui était un troupeau plus nombreux que celui de n'importe quel autre habitant».

notables, on tue une vache dont on distribue la viande à tout le voisinage. Les femmes viennent chercher leur part de plusieurs kilomètres à la ronde et l'emportent sur un plat posé sur leur tête» (1).

Les buffles étaient très peu nombreux (2) et remplaçaient les bœufs à la sakkieh.

Les ânes étaient, eux aussi, assez rares et appartenaient aux Nubiens les plus fortunés (3). Quant aux chameaux, ils n'apparaissaient que dans le Ouadi el-Arab, entre Ouadi es-Seboua et Derr (4); cela s'expliquait par l'existence d'un trafic caravanier vers le Soudan (Abou Hamed) dont Ouadi es-Seboua était le point de départ au début du siècle avant que Korosko, un peu plus tard, ne lui ravît cet avantage. Les Kachefs de Derr possédaient, eux aussi, quelques chameaux mais ils étaient plus fiers encore de leurs chevaux (5), qu'ils faisaient venir de la province de Dongola (6). D'ailleurs leur escorte était généralement composée de cavaliers, choisis parmi leurs proches parents ou leurs esclaves; vers 1813 notamment, les Kachefs de Derr disposaient de cent-vingt cavaliers (7). L'acquisition et l'entretien de ces chevaux coûtaient certainement très cher; aussi, quand les Kachefs perdirent, sous Mohamed Ali, leur autorité souveraine, le nombre des chevaux en Basse-Nubie diminua automatiquement. Il y en avait toutefois encore quelques-uns à Derr en 1848 (8).

Il est à peu près certain que le troupeau ovin dépassait celui des bovins en nombre. En effet les moutons, moins exigeants, étaient plus faciles à acquérir et à entretenir pour une population pauvre. L'impôt était payé, rappelons-le, en grains et en moutons (six moutons gras et six mesures de doura pour chaque sakkieh) (1). De même le pretium doloris, lors d'une rixe, était fixé en moutons et doura. Un meurtre donnait lieu à une double condamnation : le prix du sang à la famille, une amende de six chameaux, d'une vache et de sept moutons aux Kachefs (2). Le mouton, quand la récolte n'était pas bonne, était troqué, de village à village, contre du doura (3). On l'offrait aux voyageurs généreux (4). On l'immolait parfois lors des funérailles et on en distribuait les morceaux aux parents et voisins (5), mais d'une façon générale les Nubiens mangeaient rarement la viande des animaux; les Kachefs euxmêmes n'en mangeaient pas chaque jour (6).

Enfin les *chèvres* broutaient les nombreux buissons épineux de la vallée. On en tuait une, lors de la mort d'un proche parent et on en partageait équitablement la viande <sup>(7)</sup>; on en mangeait, certains jours de fêtes, à la table du Kachef <sup>(8)</sup>. Et la femme du Kachef Daoud crut faire le plus grand plaisir à Madame Belzoni en lui offrant une chèvre laitière <sup>(9)</sup>.

Tous les voyageurs européens du XIX° siècle prennent plaisir à nous raconter leurs aventures; tous s'accordent sur les difficultés des premiers contacts avec la population; mais aucun ne mentionne jamais les *chiens* de Basse-Nubie. Ils devaient être d'une race peureuse et se réfugiaient, semble-t-il, au plus profond d'une hutte lorsque les Nubiens en armes se précipitaient à la rencontre des visiteurs! Seul Burckhardt dit un mot de la race canine : c'est pour signaler que les Kerrarish dressaient des lévriers pour chasser les lièvres du désert, et peut-être aussi les gazelles grises (10).

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 39-40.

<sup>(2)</sup> Викскнакот, р. 24; Light (р. 100) n'en rencontra aucun entre Philæ et Ibrim; il est vrai qu'il voyageait par bateau.

<sup>(3)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 24.

<sup>(4)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 24 et p. 17-18, notes.

<sup>(5)</sup> Burgkhardt, p. 95; Irby and Mangles, p. 10 et 45; Legh, p. 59.

<sup>(6)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 136, note.

<sup>(7)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 136.—En 1813 et 1814, le Kachef de Derr prêta un cheval à Legh et Smelt, et à Light pour se rendre à Kasr Ibrim (Legh, p. 73 et suiv.; Light, p. 76).

<sup>(8)</sup> Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 190.

<sup>(1)</sup> BURCKHARDT, p. 137.

<sup>(2)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 138.

<sup>(3)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 153.

<sup>(4)</sup> Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 187-188; Legh, p. 80; Belzoni, t. I, p. 334 et 335 (agneau).

<sup>(6)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 40.

<sup>(6)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 143.

<sup>(7)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 40.

<sup>(8)</sup> Legh, p. 68.

<sup>(9)</sup> Belzoni, t. 1, p. 334.

<sup>(10)</sup> BURCKHARDT, p. 24.

Une jeune gazelle revenait à 20 piastres (1), tandis qu'un mouton était payé de 6 à 9 piastres, un veau de 9 à 21 piastres et une vache de 60 à 120 piastres (2). Sommes considérables pour l'époque (3), alors qu'il suffisait de 36 piastres pour une femme (4).

- (c) La volaille: Autour des maisons, des poules picoraient le grain perdu ou cherchaient leur subsistance dans la vase des rigoles ou des canaux (5).
- (d) Les produits de l'élevage: Nous avons déjà fait remarquer que les habitants de Basse-Nubie ne mangeaient pas ou mangeaient peu la viande des animaux. Ils étaient cependant friands de lait sucré ou aigre et du lait caillé qui accompagnait leurs galettes de doura et de dokhen ou leur plat de lentilles (6). Avec la crème, ils fabriquaient du beurre d'une qualité assez médiocre (7).

Les œufs, de petits œufs, formaient un excellent complément de nourriture; on en offrait parfois aux voyageurs (8).

(1) CHAMPOLLION, t. II, p. 196 (8 janvier 1829).

(2) Ces chiffres sont donnés par Light, p. 97 (Ibrim, 1813); Irby et Mangles (p. 8), en 1817, achetèrent, sans l'avoir vu pour l'estimer, un mouton 9 piastres.

(4) Burckhardt, p. 145 (1813).

(5) Volaille (Legh, p. 78 à Derr); poulets (Irby and Mangles, p. 7). Il y a peu de pigeons en Basse-Nubie, et pas de pigeonniers (Legh, p. 97).

(9) Викскнакот, р. 7; Legh, р. 63 et 97; Belzon, t. I, р. 133. Un plat recherché consistait en épis d'orge verts bouillis et mélangés à du lait (Викскнакот, р. 11).

La laine des moutons, mal soignée, mal peignée, était tissée sur place et donnait des tissus grossiers. Le cuir des chèvres et des moutons servait à faire des outres; nous ne pouvons dire à quel usage était employé celui des bovins.

#### 4. LA PÉCHE:

Le Nil a toujours été réputé pour être très poissonneux. Mais les habitants de la Basse-Nubie n'ont jamais été de grands pêcheurs. Burckhardt remarque que « les Nubiens n'ont aucun attirail de pêche, excepté à la première cataracte, à Derr et à la seconde cataracte où, à l'occasion, ils prennent quelques poissons au filet» (1). Il serait peut-être intéressant de savoir si l'on n'a pas conservé en Basse-Nubie une tradition de l'Egypte antique selon laquelle certains poissons, considérés comme sacrés, étaient tabous. Irby et Mangles racontent qu'après avoir beaucoup hésité à s'en emparer, les membres de leur équipage ne voulurent pas toucher un gros poisson, même lorsqu'il fut mort, et refusèrent pas surcroît d'en manger (2).

#### 5. L'ARTISANAT:

- (a) Généralités: Dans un pays d'économie pauvre, il ne peut être question que d'artisanat rural: les hommes allaient aux champs, les enfants surveillaient le bétail et les femmes restaient à la maison. Au moment des récoltes, tous s'affairaient dans les terres cultivées: il fallait se presser pour le nouvel ensemencement, ou pour gagner de vitesse le flot montant de la crue. C'était dans ses moments de loisir, et les femmes en avaient plus que les hommes, que la population nubienne s'occupait à fabriquer les petits objets qui lui étaient nécessaires. Elle était trop misérable pour acquérir, par troc ou avec de l'argent, ces objets usuels: aussi utilisait-elle les quelques ressources dont elle disposait: terre, végétaux ligneux, laine, coton, cuir.
- (b) Travaux des hommes: Avec certaines espèces d'acacias que l'on trouvait notamment à Kalabcha, les Nubiens fabriquaient du charbon

<sup>(3)</sup> Certes la livre sterling, en 1817, équivalait à 40 piastres (Irby and Mangles, p. 3); mais il ne faut pas oublier que la rareté de l'argent en Nubie en augmentait la valeur. Pour guider le chameau de Burckhardt entre Assouan et Derr (200 kilomètres), un Nubien reçu le salaire normal de six piastres, vingt paras, plus un pourboire de dix paras, (Burckhardt, p. 3).

<sup>(7)</sup> Legh, p. 68 et 80 Irby and Mangles, p. 33 (babeurre) Belzoni, t. I, p. 321; Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 209-210. — A lire la Comtesse de Gasparin (tome II, p. 184 et 213-214), les Nubiennes exagéraient l'emploi de la graisse pour les boucles frisées de leur chevelure et il s'en exhalait une odeur désagréable de beurre rance. Mais Light (p. 96) indique qu'elles oignaient leurs cheveux d'huile de cassia.

<sup>(8)</sup> Legh, p. 78.

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 25. (2) Irby and Mangles, p. 17-18.

de bois qu'ils mettaient en sac et plaçaient sur des radeaux faits avec le bois du même arbre. Ces radeaux pouvaient descendre le Nil jusqu'au Caire (1).

Dans chaque village, les hommes confectionnaient les outres en peau de chèvre ou de mouton avec lesquelles on irriguait les petits champs que l'eau des sakkiehs ne pouvait atteindre (2); ils faisaient aussi des «jarres en terre, grossières, de trente à soixante centimètres de diamètre et de un mètre cinquante de hauteur où l'on gardait les provisions de la famille» (3), les vases qui étaient utilisés pour l'irrigation (4) ainsi que les rares récipients en terre où l'on mettait le lait et les mets du repas (5).

(c) Travaux des femmes: Avec les feuilles de palmier, les femmes tressaient des nattes (6) et fabriquaient des petits paniers (7), ou encore les sacs qui servaient au transport du charbon de bois (8). Elles portaient tous leurs soins à confectionner, avec les mêmes feuilles, « des petits bols pour boire et de larges assiettes sur lesquelles, à table, on présentait le pain » (9).

Dans chaque maison, il y avait « quelques bâtons ronds sur lesquels on plaçait le métier à tisser» (10). Les femmes y tissaient de grossières galabiehs de laine et des chemises de coton (11).

Les plus pauvres « réduisaient la laine en fils, puis elles enroulaient les fils à de petites pierres. Ensuite elles attachaient les différents fils à un long bâton maintenu en position horizontale entre deux arbres, de manière à former la chaîne; et en passant un autre fil entre ceux-ci, la trame, elles fabriquaient le vêtement grossier dont les Nubiens se couvrent à partir de la taille» (1). Elles faisaient de même avec les fibres du coton (2).

Les mères de famille taillaient aussi dans la peau des animaux le tablier fait de lanières de cuir brut que portaient les petites filles (3); elles confectionnaient aussi des anneaux d'os pour leur nez ou leurs chevilles (4) et des colliers ou des bracelets en coquillage que les Bédouins du désert leur ramenaient de la Mer Rouge (5), ou, si elles étaient trop pauvres, des bracelets de paille (6).

#### 6. LE COMMERCE:

(a) L'introduction de la notion d'argent en Basse-Nubie: Il y a deux manières de voyager. L'une, la moins courante, consiste à préparer longuement son voyage en s'initiant à la langue et aux coutumes de la région à visiter. Ainsi fit Burckhardt: à dos de chameau, vêtu comme un Arabe, il traversa tous les villages établis en Basse-Nubie sur les deux rives. Il partagea la vie frugale des habitants, distribuant de petits cadeaux (savon, café, petits bonnets) en remerciement de l'hospitalité qui lui était toujours offerte. Pour lui la question d'argent ne se posa guère.

La seconde manière de voyager consiste à traverser, plus ou moins rapidement, une région peu connue, en ayant le moins possible de

<sup>(1)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 110.

<sup>(2)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 137.

<sup>(3)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 141.

<sup>(</sup>a) Belzoni, t. I, p. 137.

<sup>(5)</sup> Les Nubiens ne connaissaient pas les assiettes, les verres et les autres objets que nous utilisons pour manger.

<sup>(6)</sup> Belzoni, t. 1, p. 334.

<sup>(7)</sup> Belzoni, même référence.

<sup>(8)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 110.

<sup>(9)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 146, qui ajoute : « Bien que ces objets soient entièrement fabriqués à la main, ils sont faits d'une manière si soignée qu'ils paraissent avoir été confectionnés avec des outils ».

<sup>(10)</sup> BURCKHARDT, p. 141.

<sup>(11)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 146. Pour le tissage du coton à Forgundi, cf. Burckhardt, p. 36.

<sup>(1)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 138.

<sup>(2)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 142.

<sup>(3)</sup> LIGHT, p. 96. — Le tannage du cuir, en Basse-Nubie même, était fait avec les gousses du Cassia Sabak (Cailliaud, Voyage à Méroé et au Fleuve blanc, t. IV, p. 300 et 318-319, n° 10).

<sup>(4)</sup> Light, même référence.

<sup>(5)</sup> Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 213-214.

<sup>(6)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 141.

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contacts avec les habitants et en payant, argent comptant, les services rendus. Ainsi, Legh, Light et bien d'autres affrétèrent une barque à Assouan et remontèrent le Nil jusqu'au point où les difficultés devinrent telles qu'il leur parut prudent de démâter leur voilier et de profiter du courant pour retourner au nord.

En 1813, Legh, arrivé à Ibrim, notait : «Nous ne reçûmes aucun encouragement pour pénétrer dans un pays où l'argent commençait à être de peu d'emploi .... A Derr, les Nubiens refusaient l'argent pour la volaille et les œufs et nous demandaient toujours de leur donner du doura en échange»<sup>(1)</sup>. Certaines tractations pouvaient encore à Derr se faire en argent <sup>(2)</sup>, mais au-delà de la capitale de la Basse-Nubie, la notion d'argent n'existait pas.

L'année suivante, Light put encore se rendre à cheval de Derr à Kasr Ibrim, mais il n'alla pas plus loin. Lui aussi fit cette remarque à propos des Nubiens: «Les rapports entre eux ou avec les étrangers se font plus par échange qu'avec de l'argent. Celui-ci, j'en fus informé, n'était pas d'un usage général parmi eux jusqu'à une date récente» (3).

En 1815, Bankes fut le premier à remonter le Nil en barque jusqu'à la seconde cataracte, mais le récit de son voyage ne nous apporte aucune information au sujet de l'introduction de l'argent au-delà de Derr. En mars 1816, Drovetti, Cailliaud et Rifaud s'arrêtèrent à Abou-Simbel; ils donnèrent 300 piastres aux habitants du village de Ballana, en leur demandant de faire déblayer l'entrée du grand temple, pendant qu'eux-mêmes iraient jusqu'à la seconde cataracte. A leur retour, rien n'était

fait, mais très honnêtement on leur rendit les 300 piastres : les Nubiens ne savaient qu'en faire (1).

Aussi lorsque quelques mois plus tard, en septembre 1816, Belzoni voulut sérieusement s'attaquer au désensablement de l'entrée du temple, dut-il commencer par enseigner aux habitants de Ballana la valeur de l'argent et son utilisation (2). A partir de cette date, nous pouvons dire que la notion d'argent fut bien comprise par tous les habitants de la Basse-Nubie qui s'habituèrent très vite aux piastres et aux paras (3), si bien comprise d'ailleurs que bientôt les voyageurs ne tardèrent pas à être importunés par les demandes immodérées de pourboire (4).

(b) L'époque du troc local: Les besoins des habitants de la Basse-Nubie, vers 1813, étaient essentiellement élémentaires et concernaient tout spécialement le doura, élément fondamental de leur nourriture. Aussi échangeaient-ils tous leurs excédents de production et parfois, dans les périodes de disette, leurs biens les moins indispensables, pour pouvoir manger.

Pour avoir du *doura*, ils donnaient de l'orge (5), des dattes (6), des moutons (7), de la volaille et des œufs (8) et même de l'alun (9), du coton (10) ou du charbon de bois (11).

<sup>(1)</sup> Legh, p. 78.

<sup>(3)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 29-30 (quand la récolte de doura est abondante, les dattes sont payées en dollars espagnols). Et Burckhardt précise : «l'unité courante est le moud, ou petite mesure de doura, avec lequel on estime tout article de petite valeur. Le dollar est plus un élément d'échange qu'une unité monétaire. C'est seulement depuis l'invasion des Mamelouks qu'on connaît ici (à Derr) les piastres et les paras».

<sup>(3)</sup> LIGHT, p. 97; BELZONI, t. I, p. 126, note qu'à Abou-Simbel en 1816 « ils ignoraient tout à fait l'argent», et p. 129 que « l'argent était de peu d'usage ou sans emploi, ce qui, de fait, était le cas à cette époque à Derr, et plus encore en amont de ce lieu».

<sup>(1)</sup> Cette anecdote est racontée ici en mélant les renseignements fournis par CAILLIAUD, Voyage à Méroé et au Fleuve Blanc, t. I, p. 316-317, note et par Belzoni, t. I, p. 132.

<sup>(2)</sup> La scène est longuement rapportée dans Belzoni, t. I, p. 130-132.

<sup>(3)</sup> Il y eut certainement des précautions à prendre, notamment pour l'évaluation des denrées ou des moutons ; cf. le raisonnement de Belzoni (t. I, p. 153) à propos de l'achat d'un mouton.

<sup>(4)</sup> Comtesse de Gasparin, t. II, p. 184-185 et 224.

<sup>(5)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 140.

<sup>(6)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 29; Belzoni, t. I, p. 129.

<sup>(7)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 153.

<sup>(8)</sup> Legh, p. 78.

<sup>(9)</sup> BURCKHARDT, p. 31. — Cet alun se trouvait dans une oasis du désert occidental, l'oasis d'El-Chab, à trois journées de marche de Ouadi-Halfa. C'étaient les Kerrarish qui se chargeaient d'aller le chercher et qui l'échangeaient en donnant deux mesures d'alun pour trois mesures égales de doura.

<sup>(10)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 36.

<sup>(11)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 110.

Toutefois un produit indispensable à la vie leur faisait aussi défaut, le sel. Les Nubiens les plus pauvres allaient chercher dans les ruines antiques ou dans des tas d'immondices une sorte de salpêtre dont ils salaient la pâte de leur pain (1); d'autres extrayaient ce salpêtre de la terre de certaines îles au moment des plus basses eaux (2). Les plus fortunés obtenaient ce sel en échange de dattes ou de charbon de bois (3), et leur joie était grande lorsque, pour de petits services, les voyageurs leur en faisaient cadeau (4).

Enfin les dattes étaient troquées contre des mélayas et du lin grossier (5) avec lequel les femmes confectionnaient des galabiehs, bleues pour les riches, des petits bonnets de lin, ou encore de simples ceintures pour les adolescents (6).

(c) Les éléments du commerce en Basse-Nubie: De tous les récits des voyageurs du XIX° siècle il ressort que la Basse-Nubie commerçait essentiellement avec l'Egypte: le Soudan était trop pauvre et la situation politique y était plus ou moins anarchique. C'était donc vers Assouan et le Caire que les productions excédentaires et les produits non utilisables dans un pays peu évolué étaient expédiés par bateau.

Les commerçants de Ouadi es-Seboua, puis de Korosko, en relation directe avec les Soudanais d'Abou-Hamed, n'avaient aucune part dans ce trafic. Les échanges commerciaux de la Basse-Nubie étaient, en effet, centralisés à Derr, la capitale et la résidence des Kachefs (7), où venaient, au moment des récoltes, des commerçants d'Esna ou d'Assouan, agents directs de ceux du Caire. Les barques lourdement chargées profitaient du courant pour se laisser porter jusque vers la première cataracte :

le port de Derr, escale pour les barques en provenance du Soudan, point de départ pour celles qui rassemblaient les marchandises de la région, connaissait une fiévreuse activité certains jours de l'année, surtout au moment de la crue, celui même de la récolte des dattes, où la rapidité du flot accélérait la vitesse des convois.

D'une manière générale, les Nubiens étaient grugés par les marchands du nord (1). Burckhardt note que les dattes achetées à Derr, tous frais payés, donnaient un bénéfice à la vente au Caire d'au moins quatre cents pour cent, tandis que pour le doura en provenance d'Assouan, le bénéfice, était dans les mêmes conditions, de cent pour cent (2).

— exportations: Le trafic commercial vers l'Egypte reposait, au XIX° siècle, essentiellement sur une production excédentaire d'excellentes dattes (spécialement celles de Derr et d'Ibrim (3)). Vers 1813 Derr exportait entre 225.000 et 300.000 kilogrammes de dattes (4).

Mais la Basse-Nubie envoyait encore vers le nord du séné (5), des jeunes plants de dattiers (6), du coton, en particulier celui d'Afyeh (7) et celui de Forgundi (8), des graines de sant (acacia ou mimosa nilotica) appelées garad et utilisées pour tanner le cuir (9), enfin du charbon de bois qui était ensaché et conduit jusqu'au Caire sur des radeaux d'acacia (10).

— importations : Dans un pays aussi pauvre que la Basse-Nubie les articles d'importation étaient rares et de faible valeur.

<sup>(1)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 143, note.

<sup>(2)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 139.

<sup>(3)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 129 (en échange de dattes), p. 110 (en échange de charbon de bois).

<sup>(4)</sup> IRBY and MANGLES, p. 10.

<sup>(5)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 29.

<sup>(6)</sup> Викскнакот, р. 141; Ілент, р. 96.

<sup>(7)</sup> Les Kachefs percevaient une taxe sur chaque bateau transportant des dattes, Burckhardt, p. 137.

<sup>(1)</sup> Ou par le gouvernement de Mohamed Ali, puisque ce sont ses agents qui fixent après 1816 le prix des dattes (Champollion, t. II, p. 206).

<sup>(2)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 29.

<sup>(3)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 29; Light, p. 97.

<sup>(4)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 137, note.

<sup>(5)</sup> Light, p. 97.

<sup>(6)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 29.

<sup>(7)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 121. « (La région) fournit une assez grande quantité de coton qui est rassemblée et envoyée au Caire».

<sup>(8)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 36: « les femmes l'échangent contre du doura chez les marchands de Derr ».

<sup>(°)</sup> Irby and Mangles, p. 14-15 (ces graines sont d'abord envoyées au Caire, puis embarquées vers l'Europe); Burckhardt, p. 112 (les habitants d'Abou-Hor cueillent et vendent les garad à Assouan aux marchands d'Egypte; célèbres tanneries à Assiout); Cailliaud Voyage à Méroé et au Fleuve Blanc, t. IV p. 300.

<sup>(10)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 110 et 120.

A l'époque du troc comme après l'introduction de l'argent, c'était le doura qui faisait le plus souvent défaut; pour assurer la subsistance des Nubiens, quelle que fût l'importance de la production locale, il fallait échanger contre d'autres produits ou acheter du doura à l'Egypte.

De même le sel (1) et le lin, inconnus en Basse-Nubie, comptaient parmi les produits importés de première nécessité.

Trois articles doivent être encore ajoutés à cette liste : les moutons élevés par les Bicharin dans les pâturages du plateau arabique (2), le tabac (3) et les armes (4).

Naturellement ces importations n'étaient destinées qu'aux classes les plus aisées, à l'exception toutefois des armes : chaque Nubien, en effet, considérait comme indispensable la possession d'un poignard, d'une lance et d'un bouclier et, dès qu'il était en âge d'en posséder ou dès qu'il pouvait en acquérir, il n'hésitait pas à satisfaire son désir ; toutefois la richesse de l'arme dépendait étroitement de la richesse de son possesseur. Au fur et à mesure que s'écoulait le XIX° siècle, ce besoin d'être armé disparut avec un sentiment nouveau qui se répandit progressivement en Basse-Nubie : celui de la sécurité personnelle de l'individu et de la sécurité collective du village.

### II. — LA BASSE-NUBIE CONTEMPORAINE

Nous avons dressé, à l'aide d'informations recueillies par les voyageurs de la première moitié du XIX° siècle, un tableau de l'économie de la Basse-Nubie. Cette économie ne pouvait guère évoluer avec le siècle et la Basse-Nubie devait, pour les raisons que nous allons indiquer,

demeurer obligatoirement étrangère à la révolution agricole et à la révolution industrielle qui transformèrent, à l'époque moderne, un grand nombre de pays encore attachés à leurs activités traditionnelles, et de régions jusque-là déshéritées.

En effet, la Basse-Nubie, entre la première et la seconde cataracte, est essentiellement une zone de passage entre l'Egypte et le Soudan (1): la bande de terres cultivées est, sur les deux rives, si étroite qu'elle suffit à peine à nourrir une population dense; la polyculture y est absolument nécessaire et l'absence de terres à pâture y restreint le développement de l'élevage.

La population de Basse-Nubie est pauvre; or, pour transformer l'économie d'une région, il est essentiel de disposer de capitaux abondants. Une aide gouvernementale ne se serait justifiée que si la Basse-Nubie avait eu des ressources exceptionnelles; les dattes, unique production excédentaire, n'entrent pas dans cette catégorie.

Enfin, la Basse-Nubie est une province qui manque de ressources minières. Les carrières de granit sont proches d'Assouan et leur exploitation intéresse très peu les Nubiens. Le grès nubien est de mauvaise qualité et, même si l'Egypte en manquait, le problème de son transport rendrait son extraction très coûteuse. Depuis la IV<sup>o</sup> Dynastie de l'ancienne Egypte, les carrières de diorite, situées dans le désert occidental au nord d'Abou-Simbel, sont abandonnées. Et les mines d'or du Ouadi-Allaki sont depuis longtemps épuisées.

En d'autres termes, il ne pouvait être question d'enrichir la Basse-Nubie par une monoculture bénéficiaire ou par un élevage intensif.

<sup>(1)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 124.

<sup>(2)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 149. Les Bicharin amenaient quelquesois à Derr des moutons, du séné de bonne qualité et des plumes d'autruche. Le séné et les plumes d'autruche partaient pour le Caire, mais les moutons renouvelaient le cheptel local.

<sup>(3)</sup> Belzoni, t. I, p. 133 : « Quelques feuilles d'une espèce particulière de tabac, appelée Tunny Djebel et provenant de Syrie, que le Nubien chique et considère comme un grand luxe ».

<sup>(4)</sup> Les armes venaient aussi bien d'Egypte (fusils) que du Soudan (poignards, lances, boucliers).

<sup>(1)</sup> Malgré l'existence du condominium anglo-égyptien au Soudan, les deux lignes de chemin de fer Khartoum-Ouadi-Halfa et Le Caire-Chellal (Assouan) n'ont jamais été raccordées. L'étroitesse de la vallée, entre les deux premières cataractes, exigeait la construction d'ouvrages d'art (ponts, tunnels) trop onéreux pour un trafic nécessairement limité. Aussi le Nil demeure-t-il encore la seule voie de pénétration vers la Basse-Nubie. — Il peut être utile de se reporter aussi au bel article de Claire Préaux, Sur les communications de l'Ethiopie avec l'Egypte hellénistique, dans Chronique d'Egypte, janvier 1952, p. 257-281, pour mieux évaluer la médiocrité du rôle économique de la Basse-Nubie égyptienne.

Et le manque de matières premières et de sources d'énergie s'opposait à son industrialisation.

Ainsi, à l'aube du XX° siècle, la Basse-Nubie, pays pauvre par nature, était destinée à rester à l'écart de la civilisation moderne. La construction du Barrage d'Assouan (1902), puis ses deux surélévations (1912 et 1934), en condamnant sans appel la Basse-Nubie pour assurer le développement de la partie vivante de l'Egypte, n'eurent donc pas les conséquences économiques négatives qu'on pourrait imaginer. Et la construction prochaine du Haut-Barrage (Sadd el-Ali), en achevant l'immersion totale de la Basse-Nubie et en la rendant, cette fois-ci, définitive, ne posera pas de problème véritablement nouveau : il y a près d'un demisiècle que les Nubiens se sont adaptés à des conditions de vie particulières ; deux, sinon trois générations se sont déjà accoutumées à un genre d'existence qui leur convient et qui, somme toute, leur a donné un bien-être et une aisance que leurs ancêtres n'ont pas connus et qu'ils n'auraient jamais connus eux-mêmes sans la disparition temporaire ou définitive du sol qui normalement aurait dû les faire vivre.

Dans ces conditions, étudier scientifiquement l'économie de la Basse-Nubie contemporaine serait une gageure; tout au plus, pouvons-nous faire quelques remarques de caractère économique comme l'ont fait les voyageurs non spécialisés du siècle dernier.

#### Le Paysage en Basse-Nubie :

En réalité la Basse-Nubie présente actuellement deux paysages très différents: d'octobre à juin, les vannes du Barrage d'Assouan sont fermées; le lac de retenue engloutit toute la partie autrefois utile qui se trouve sous une trentaine de mètres d'eau. De juillet au début d'octobre, au moment de la crue du Nil, les vannes sont ouvertes; le lac disparaît et le Nil retrouve son lit: les terres basses réapparaissent et, rapidement ensemencées, se couvrent d'une végétation dense le long des berges du fleuve.

1. Le paysage d'hiver : Il varie tout naturellement selon la nature des rives (roches, sables ou plaine limoneuse) et aussi selon la latitude. En effet, la largeur du lac change d'après la nature du relief et sa pro-

fondeur n'est pas la même partout : elle est à son maximum immédiatement au sud du Barrage et à son minimum aux environs d'Abou-Simbel ; au-delà d'Abou-Simbel l'influence du lac artificiel ne se fait pratiquement plus sentir.

La Basse-Nubie, au nord de Korosko, est pendant neuf mois de l'année une terre austère. Les eaux baignent presque partout la pente des collines; ailleurs elles frappent de leurs vagues de considérables amas de sable. Une ligne discontinue d'arbustes épineux marque généralement la limite supérieure des eaux : c'est la seule végétation visible sur des dizaines de kilomètres. Parfois, lorsque le bateau passe près d'un village, on aperçoit la perche d'un chadouf : un vieillard arrose un jardinet dont la verdure surprend dans ce cadre jaune, brun clair ou franchement noir si les roches avoisinantes sont des granits ou des grès calcinés par le soleil. En deux ou trois points pourtant, des stations de pompage entretiennent des zones limitées de cultures, mais les champs de doura ne sont généralement pas visibles de la rive : à Dakka, à Allaki, par exemple.

A partir de Ouadi es-Seboua, le paysage change progressivement. La profondeur du lac s'est réduite et l'on voit, près de la rive, émerger les têtes des palmiers-doum, puis celles des palmiers-dattiers, posées sur un stipe nain; la hauteur de ce stipe augmente au fur et à mesure que l'on va vers le sud; après Aniba, le tronc des palmiers est tout entier dégagé. Il en est de même pour les acacias sant, plus nombreux encore que les différentes sortes de palmiers : à Ouadi es-Seboua, seule la masse verte de leur feuillage repose sur l'eau; plus au sud, où la végétation arbustive est beaucoup plus dense, les troncs apparaissent. Et tantôt sur une rive, tantôt sur l'autre, les arbres, par bouquets, marquent la double limite des eaux : celle d'été, et les arbres sont dans l'eau, celle d'hiver, et alors tamaris et acacias sont forment une ligne presque continue le long de la berge. A partir d'Ibrim-Aniba, ces deux limites tendent à se confondre; les palmiers-dattiers sont plus nombreux et constituent de véritables palmeraies (celle de Derr, fameuse au XIX° siècle, a aujourd'hui totalement disparu). Mais ces palmeraies sont très nettement différenciées; elles apparaissent tantôt sur la rive est, tantôt sur la rive ouest et, plus longues que larges, elles s'arrêtent

brusquement à une coulée de sable ou à un promontoire rocheux. Avant le lever du jour, les acacias sont parfois couverts de grosses fleurs blanches: ce sont des pique-bœufs qui sont venus s'y mettre à l'abri pendant la nuit; dès l'aurore ils s'envolent et se répandent dans les oasis de champs cultivés.

Les troupeaux de moutons et de chèvres commencent à paître une herbe rare le long de la berge; plus au nord ils demeuraient dans leurs enclos, la saison des tiges de doura séchées ayant été inversée puisqu'il n'y a plus au nord de la Basse-Nubie qu'une récolte d'été. Peu avant d'arriver à Abou-Simbel (1), une petite île, la première, apparaît dès février (2) mais elle n'est pas cultivée, et la rive orientale est bordée par une longue digue à l'abri de laquelle croît, le long du rivage, une étroite palmeraie touffue; puis en arrière, les champs cultivés s'étendent jusqu'au village de Ferayg. A la station de pompage de Ferayg correspond sur la rive occidentale, celle de Ballana : ici, en particulier près du village d'Ismaïlia, il n'est plus besoin de digue pour protéger les vergers, la palmeraie et les cultures. Au milieu du fleuve une grande île étale sa verdure : arbres et champs. Cette partie de la Nubie a seule conservé le cycle agricole traditionnel : récoltes d'hiver, de printemps et d'été. Au sud de Ballana, sur la rive occidentale, les sables viennent jusqu'au bord de l'eau : les acacias et les tamaris reprennent possession du paysage et il en est ainsi jusqu'à la frontière soudanaise. Sur la rive orientale, après Koustoul, une palmeraie dense et touffue cache, presque jusqu'à la frontière, tout l'arrière-pays. Au loin se profile l'île de Faras, en territoire soudanais.

2. Le paysage d'été: En fait nous devrions dire les paysages d'été parce que la Basse-Nubie, en cette période, présente deux visages très différents:

— fin juin-juillet : le lac de retenue se vide et le limon du Nil apparaît. Depuis que le Barrage d'Assouan a été construit d'énormes masses de limon se sont amassées au fond du lac; les épaisseurs les plus grandes se trouvent au nord de la Basse-Nubie (plus de 3 mètres d'épaisseur à Taffa, à l'entrée de Bab Kalabcha). Aussi les berges actuelles ne représentent-elles que grossièrement le tracé des berges anciennes en période de crue, car nous ne voyons plus la vallée du Nil nubien qu'au moment des hautes eaux.

Ce limon se présente au début sous la forme d'une masse de boue liquide qui s'assèche progressivement. Il serait donc nécessaire de procéder aussitôt à l'ensemencement. Mais la prudence commande d'attendre un peu : une graine plantée trop loin de la rive risquerait de germer trop vite et la tigelle serait vite brûlée par le soleil; il faut donc attendre que le lac soit entièrement vidé, que le fleuve en crue ne remplisse que son lit majeur. Alors on procède aux semailles, non sur toute la largeur de la plaine, mais seulement sur une bande étroite qui borde le fleuve : les plantes continueront à profiter de l'humidité, leurs racines iront puiser l'eau nourricière à faible profondeur et, si le besoin s'en fait sentir, on pourra irriguer avec des moyens sommaires (en dehors des zones agricoles alimentées par les stations de pompage, il n'y a ni sakkiehs, ni chadoufs, ni vis d'Archimède; ce n'est qu'à l'extrême sud, dans la grande palmeraie qui borde le fleuve entre Koustoul et la frontière soudanaise qu'apparaissent, très nombreuses et fort rapprochées les unes des autres, les curieuses sakkiehs montées sur pilotis).

La Basse-Nubie, à ce moment-là, est toute nouvelle. La ligne d'arbustes qui marque le niveau maximum du lac de retenue est à plus de vingt mètres de la berge, à mi-hauteur des collines rocheuses qui plongent dans le Nil ou très loin du fleuve; elle est plus loin encore si les épineux ont poussé sur des amoncellements de sable. Toute cette végétation souffre du soleil et du manque d'eau; elle doit attendre fin octobre ou novembre, moment où le lac retrouve son niveau. Les villages sont, eux aussi, loin du Nil et les perches des chadoufs se dressent désespérément vers le ciel. Au pied des villages s'étend une plaine noirâtre, impossible à franchir, de largeur très variable, mais généralement faible, où parfois des troncs d'arbres, morts depuis plus de trente ans, accentuent la tristesse du paysage. Bien souvent cette plaine est arrosée

<sup>(1)</sup> A la hauteur de Toschké et sur la rive orientale, une station de pompage assure l'irrigation d'une véritable oasis qu'on ne voit pas du fleuve parce qu'elle est cachée par des collines où sont installés des hameaux.

<sup>(\*)</sup> Le niveau du lac baisse progressivement, dès cette époque, pour assurer l'irrigation pérenne de l'Egypte.

par des «sources», en réalité des résurgences: en effet, pendant la longue immersion de la Basse-Nubie l'eau pénètre à travers le grès poreux et s'accumule dans des poches; quand le lac a disparu, ces poches se vident très lentement et les résurgences fonctionnent encore pendant plus d'un mois et entretiennent parfois, en bordure des collines, des petits pâturages où paissent moutons et chèvres. Les stations de pompage mobiles, qui restent toujours au même niveau que le lac ou le fleuve, s'évertuent, jour et nuit, à fournir le plus d'eau possible aux plantations qu'elles irriguent.

Ça et là, sur la berge, les vieilles sakkiehs en ruine, qui étaient pour la plupart en service avant la seconde surélévation du barrage, ressemblent à des tours de défense écrêtées. En certains endroits, partout où l'ancienne plaine riveraine s'élargissait, elles sont fort rapprochées les unes des autres.

Des îles émergent: les premières sont les îles granitiques de Bab Kalabcha; au sud de Dakka, ce sont de larges bancs de sable, domaine d'innombrables oiseaux: échassiers, cormorans, etc... Pas de crocodiles; les deux seuls que nous ayons vus ont élu domicile l'un près d'Ermenneh, l'autre dans l'île qui est au nord d'Abou-Simbel; ils sont là, hiver comme été.

Après Korosko, les palmiers sont tous hors de l'eau et, spécialement entre Aniba et Kasr-Ibrim, la vallée du Nil nubien prend un aspect majestueux, avec sur la rive orientale des montagnes absolument désertiques dont les promontoires plongent en à-pic dans le fleuve et sur la rive occidentale une large plaine sableuse limitée au bord de l'eau par une masse d'arbres à peu près continue et dans le lointain par de petits massifs gréseux aux formes lourdes. Plus au sud les deux rives sont toujours aussi riantes, mais elles sont encore, près des berges, précédées par la masse boueuse du limon récemment émergé.

— septembre-octobre. Les Nubiens, temporairement émigrés au nord de la première cataracte, prennent leur congé, généralement une fois tous les deux ans, pendant les mois d'été. C'est, en effet, pour eux l'époque la plus favorable : c'est la période des vacances pour les étrangers et les Egyptiens s'en vont vers Alexandrie ou les autres plages de la côte méditerranéenne ; le Caire se vide. Dans les hôtels et dans

les restaurants, c'est la morte-saison (1). Aussi, en Basse-Nubie, une population nombreuse et active s'est répandue sur les terres utiles, a ensemencé et pris soin des cultures.

Dès septembre donc la Basse-Nubie verdoie. Mais l'aspect qu'elle présente du bateau qui remonte le fleuve est trompeur; il faut approcher de la rive et, surtout, débarquer et traverser la petite plaine jusqu'aux collines pour se rendre compte exactement de ce qu'il en est.

Au fur et à mesure que le bateau à moteur approche de la berge, les vagues qu'il forme frappent violemment la ligne de terre et en détache des blocs de terre noirâtre qui entraînent avec eux la végétation qu'ils portent; les terres de culture sur le front du fleuve ont un sol particulièrement friable. Avant de débarquer on a l'impression d'une riche moisson, haute et drue; on est surpris de constater en traversant les champs de doura qu'ils s'étendent surtout en longueur, mais qu'en largeur ils n'ont guère que quelques mètres. Au-delà la plaine est presque nue: viennent d'abord quelques cucurbitacées, puis une herbe rase que quelques chameaux (2), de rares vaches et de maigres troupeaux de chèvres et moutons broutent sous la surveillance des enfants, enfin une étendue variable de limon que la sécheresse excessive a séparé en mottes polygonales d'une soixantaine de centimètres de haut; au fond des crevasses qui entourent ces mottes apparaît la masse limoneuse qui s'assèche progressivement.

Ainsi la Basse-Nubie de septembre-octobre paraît beaucoup plus attrayante que pendant les autres mois. Mais ce n'est guère qu'un trompe-l'œil : ses cultures font illusion lorsqu'on est au milieu du

<sup>(1)</sup> Depuis 1945, les voyages par avion et l'organisation de voyages collectifs, véritables croisières, ont donné naissance, en Egypte, à un tourisme d'été qui a légèrement modifié ces conditions. Toutefois le Winter Palace à Louxor et le Cataract Hôtel à Assouan sont toujours fermés pendant les mois d'été.

<sup>(2)</sup> Ces chameaux appartiennent très probablement à des Bicharin; ce sont, en effet, surtout des chamelles avec leurs petits. En été les pâturages du désert oriental sont complètement secs; aussi les Bicharin se rapprochent-ils de la vallée du Nil et, par entente avec les populations riveraines, cherchent-ils à assurer la subsistance de leurs bêtes les plus fragiles.

fleuve; elles ne sont en réalité qu'un magnifique paravent de hautes tiges de doura cachant une plaine nue, crevassée par une chaleur excessive.

Aussi, en exceptant les oasis entretenues par les stations de pompage, la superficie des terres actuellement ensemencées en Basse-Nubie estelle très réduite, beaucoup plus réduite qu'au siècle dernier. La variété des cultures a elle aussi disparu puisqu'au cycle ancien (récoltes d'hiver, de printemps et d'été) s'est substituée une saison agricole unique, celle d'été, et tous les végétaux ne résistent pas de la même façon à l'ardeur du soleil. La Basse-Nubie ne produit plus que des dattes, qui sont demeurées un article d'exportation, le seul, et la quantité de doura qui doit suffire à nourrir la volaille (surtout dans le Ouadi el-Arab, autour de Ouadi es-Seboua) et, pendant neuf mois, période pendant laquelle les eaux recouvrent tout, un cheptel très diminué.

Encore les Nubiens doivent-ils se plier aux exigences de l'économie agricole égyptienne. La crue du Nil n'est pas régulière : il y a des fortes crues et des crues insuffisantes, selon la quantité de pluies tombées au Soudan, et surtout en Ethiopie. Aussi les vannes du Barrage d'Assouan ne sont-elles pas ouvertes ou fermées à dates fixes. Le niveau du lac descend presque chaque année à la même époque, mais il peut remonter fin août (1) pour redescendre en septembre; d'autre part, si la crue est faible, il est nécessaire de prévoir l'avenir et de fermer plus tôt les vannes. C'est pourquoi les Nubiens s'affairent souvent au début d'octobre pour rentrer leurs cultures, véritables cultures dérobées, avant même leur maturité. Malgré la fertilité du limon et l'ardeur du soleil, le temps n'est quelquefois pas suffisant pour que les graines du sorgho soient suffisamment mûres; du moins le bétail aura-t-il son fourrage sec lorsqu'il ne pourra plus ronger jusqu'à la racine, à la limite des eaux d'inondation, la pauvre végétation naturelle.

Les maisons de Basse-Nubie:

Pour qui traverse la Nubie, soit en hiver, soit en été, il est une joie des yeux permanente. Dans ce pays évidemment pauvre, où rien ne pousse ou en si petite quantité, où les arbres sont rares, où les coulées de sable s'introduisent entre des moutonnements de collines désertiques ou glissent entre des montagnes aux formes coniques ou pyramidales, il y a partout des maisons. Les villages se groupent autour des Khors (1) ou s'étirent, en hameaux distincts, sur les deux rives de la vallée.

Mais ces maisons ne frappent pas seulement par leur nombre; elles sont aussi, parfois, d'une architecture évoluée. Certes la majorité d'entre elles sont très simples, corps de logis parallélépipèdiques enfermés dans une vaste cour; et rares sont aujourd'hui les maisons au toit voûté, alors que cette forme d'architecture caractérise les maisons des Nubiens établis au nord de la première cataracte. Mais il y en a d'autres qui sont d'un plan plus compliqué : escaliers d'accès, terrasses, portails monumentaux ou porches soutenus par des colonnes, frontons ondulés ou balustrades ajourées devant les toits plats. Certaines sont entièrement peintes en blanc; rares sont celles qui mêlent le bleu, le vert et le rose. Les plus belles, surtout entre Assouan et Ouadi es-Seboua, sont décorées : des assiettes de faïence de différents diamètres brillent au soleil, le matin sur la rive occidentale, le soir sur l'autre rive; quelquefois des peintures de différentes couleurs couvrent les murs extérieurs de la maison ou même de l'enclos qui les contient (2). Ces peintures, géométriques pour l'encadrement des portes, deviennent de véritables œuvres d'art folklorique lorsque la surface à décorer est plus grande : drapeaux au-dessus des portes, animaux sur les murs (oiseaux, volailles, etc...), objets divers, fleurs isolées ou en pots, sont représentés, généralement sous forme de frises ou en registres superposés, à une échelle parfois

<sup>(1)</sup> Cette remontée des eaux est actuellement souvent nécessaire pour que l'usine électrique installée à Assouan puisse normalement fonctionner.

<sup>(1)</sup> Sorte de fjords : ce sont les vallées des anciens ouadis qui sont, pendant la plus grande partie de l'année, remplies par les eaux du lac de retenue. Ces khors sont de largeur et de longueur variables ; ils peuvent s'enfoncer sur plusieurs kilomètres dans les plateaux.

<sup>(3)</sup> Dans un même village certaines maisons sont décorées d'assiettes et d'autres de peintures. Au delà de Ouadi es-Seboua où l'antique économie nubienne tend à se conserver, la façade des maisons est rarement recouverte d'un enduit blanc et l'architecture des édifices est généralement très simple. Tout se passe comme si la limite des belles maisons coïncidait avec celle de l'influence des eaux du lac de retenue, avant la seconde surélévation du Barrage d'Assouan (1929-1934).

plus grande que nature, en blanc et noir, mais quelquefois avec des couleurs vives. Chaque village rivalise avec le voisin et les artistes locaux laissent aller leur imagination et réalisent des œuvres parfois pleines de candeur, le plus souvent originales et très décoratives.

Ce ne sont pas tous les villages qui sont décorés d'assiettes ou de peintures. Il serait vain d'en dresser une liste fastidieuse, mais il est intéressant de remarquer que les maisons des villages tributaires des stations de pompage sont toujours communes; c'est souvent dans les hameaux apparemment les plus déshérités que l'on va de surprise en surprise.

Nous sommes, devant de telles merveilles, bien loin des descriptions des voyageurs du siècle précédent. Voici par exemple l'explication de la pl. LXIX, n° 3, de l'ouvrage de Vivant-Denon (1) qui représente une maison nubienne au sud de Philæ: « Maison nubienne des plus somptueuses et des plus complètes dans sa distribution; celle-ci, ainsi que toutes les autres, est bâtie de terre, mêlée de quelques morceaux de bois de palmiers, servant de chambranles aux portes ou ouvertures par lesquelles on s'introduit dans les chambres et magasins, le tout couvert à peu près de fagots de paille de dourah, qui servent de provision de bois pour cuire; lorsque les maisons sont dépourvues d'arbres et construites dans les rochers, elles disparaissent à l'œil dès que le soleil levé ne laisse plus d'ombres aux corps, et n'en dessine plus la forme .... Le besoin, qui est le distributeur des localités et l'architecte de chaque corps de logis, fait que toutes les maisons se ressemblent, sans qu'il y en ait deux qui soient de même».

Citons maintenant Burckhardt (2): « Les habitations des Nubiens sont construites soit en boue, soit en pierres non cimentées. Celles qui sont en pierres se trouvent généralement sur la pente des collines et consistent en deux constructions rondes séparées : l'une est occupée par les hommes et l'autre par les femmes de la famille. Les habitations en boue sont généralement si basses qu'on peut à peine s'y tenir debout...

Les maisons de Derr et celles des habitants aisés des principaux villages sont bien construites; elles ont une grande cour au centre avec des appartements tout autour, et une séparation entre ceux des hommes et ceux des femmes».

Nulle part il n'est question d'architecture originale, d'éléments ajourés ou de peintures. Ces diverses réalisations artistiques, dont il ne saurait être question de nier la valeur réelle, sont donc d'importation récente. On le comprendra bien mieux lorsqu'on apprendra que les assiettes de faïence décorée qui brillent au soleil, en Basse-Nubie, étaient autrefois plus simples, blanches avec des filets d'or, et portaient le nom de l'un des grands hôtels d'Egypte : ainsi pouvait-on savoir où travaillait le maître du logis (1).

Pour les maisons dont les murs extérieurs sont ornés de peintures, il est plus difficile de deviner ce qui est à l'origine d'une telle coutume. A-t-on voulu transposer sur les murs extérieurs, à l'image de ces représentations du pèlerinage à la Mecque que l'on rencontre fréquemment tout le long de la vallée du Nil, les tableaux (natures mortes, fleurs, gibier, etc...) que les serviteurs voient tous les jours dans les salles à manger de leurs maîtres? Et l'imagination populaire aurait alors conçu ces frises décoratives de fleurs en pots, de poulets? Nous serions tentés de l'admettre.

Quant aux escaliers d'accès, aux balustrades ajourées, aux porches à colonnes, il n'est que de voir les villas construites depuis le début du XX° siècle au Caire pour se rendre compte que l'emprunt était facile et qu'il suffisait de l'adapter à la configuration du sol et à la qualité des matériaux employés.

Quoi qu'il en soit, toutes ces maisons de Basse-Nubie sont modernes : presque tous les anciens villages ont été noyés soit lors de la construction du Barrage d'Assouan, soit plutôt lors de ses deux surélévations. En adoptant un nouveau genre de vie, les habitants ont rompu avec des

<sup>(1)</sup> VIVANT-DENON, Voyage dans la Basse et la Haute-Egypte, pendant les campagnes du Général Bonaparte, p. 262.

<sup>(2)</sup> Burckhardt, p. 140-141.

<sup>(1)</sup> Au bout de quelques mois, par suite de la casse, les services de table des grands hôtels sont changés. Les services dépareillés, inutilisables, sont alors partagés entre les serviteurs qui, n'ayant pas besoin d'assiettes chez eux, s'en servent comme éléments décoratifs de leurs maisons nubiennes, à l'extérieur, pour signaler à tous leur activité normale.

traditions de construction sans intérêt et ont cherché à se conformer à leur condition nouvelle, en exposant aux yeux de tous, dans l'architecture générale et dans la décoration extérieure de leurs habitations, leur connaissance d'une civilisation si différente de la leur. Dans un pays appauvri, ils se sont plu à étaler leur richesse sur les deux éléments qui permettent à autrui de l'évaluer : leur maison et leurs vêtements. Il suffisait que quelques-uns d'entre eux eussent ce souci pour que, par émulation, presque tous les villages de Basse-Nubie fussent complètement transformés.

#### Les habitants de Basse-Nubie :

La population de la Basse-Nubie est, nous l'avons dit, bien difficile à recenser. Néanmoins il est permis de faire les constatations générales suivantes (1): pendant la période où le climat est le plus supportable, la vallée du Nil nubien est presque déserte; pendant les mois d'été, les mois où la chaleur est accablante mais où il est nécessaire de travailler, tous les habitants du village passent dehors la plus grande partie de la journée.

- 1. Les vieillards: Ils forment, et de beaucoup, l'essentiel de la population mâle. Ce sont eux qui manient le chadouf pour arroser leur jardinet; pendant la période de culture, ils sont aux champs.
- 2. Les enfants: Filles et garçons vont à l'école. Quand l'école clôt ses portes, ils mènent paître leurs petits troupeaux de moutons et de chèvres: c'est l'été. Il n'y a presque pas d'adolescents en Basse-Nubie. Certains vont à l'école secondaire d'Aniba, d'autres à celle d'Assouan. Les plus nombreux sont avec leur père dans les grandes villes d'Egypte.
- 3. Les femmes : C'est sur elles que repose presque tout le souci de la maison et de la propriété familiale. Pendant les neuf mois d'inondation,

elles vaquent aux soins ménagers : les maisons nubiennes sont toutes d'une propreté méticuleuse, aussi méticuleuse que le permet le sable qui s'insinue par les moindres fentes. Dès que le lac de retenue diminue, les femmes se font aider par les fillettes pour l'aiguade : travail pénible qui devient de plus en plus désagréable à mesure que le lac se vide. Dès que les terres de la berge sont émergées, les femmes procèdent à l'ensemencement. Et ce sont elles, enfin, qui assurent la rentrée des récoltes.

4. Les hommes: Rares sont les hommes, de seize à cinquante ans environ, qu'on rencontre en Nubie pendant l'hiver (1). Il y en a un peu plus pendant les mois de congé, en été; ceux qui ont la chance de se trouver à ce moment au village natal, apportent leur aide aux familles de leurs concitoyens retenus au nord (2).

Il n'y a guère que les fonctionnaires locaux (employés des postes, instituteurs, gendarmes, gardiens des monuments antiques) qui demeurent en Basse-Nubie. Les autres s'expatrient pour de longues années. En dehors de ceux qui choisissent la carrière militaire, peu nombreux sont ceux qui entrent dans l'Administration pour demeurer en Egypte. Les Nubiens préfèrent se mettre au service des familles riches, des compagnies privées, des ambassades ou consulats, des propriétaires d'hôtels ou de restaurants. Et ils savent qu'ils sont recherchés pour un certain nombre de qualités qui leur sont particulières (3).

<sup>(1)</sup> Ces remarques ne s'appliquent pas, d'une manière générale, aux zones cultivées grâce à l'irrigation pérenne entretenue par les station de pompage. Mais si l'on considère la superficie totale de la Basse-Nubie, ces nouvelles zones d'agriculture traditionnelle sont très limitées.

<sup>(1)</sup> Il faut remarquer que les pêcheurs nubiens sont relativement rares et se rencontrent surtout dans le voisinage des stations de pompage où habite une population essentiellement sédentaire. Partout ailleurs les rares barques de pêche sont montées par des vieillards, aidés de garçonnets.

<sup>(3)</sup> La solidarité qui unit les Nubiens lorsqu'ils sont loin de leurs villages, n'est pas exceptionnelle : l'esprit d'entr'aide qui les anime est l'une des caractéristiques de leur comportement habituel ; c'est, probablement, dans le particularisme local, élargi jusqu'à devenir un particularisme régional, qu'il faut rechercher l'origine de ce soutien qu'ils ne cessent de s'apporter au village, lorsque l'un d'entre eux est dans le besoin, ou sur les lieux de leur travail, lorsqu'il s'agit de procurer un emploi et de porter assistance à qui se trouve dans l'ennui.

<sup>(3)</sup> On retrouve pareille spécialisation chez les habitants de Qouft (Kéna, Haute-Egypte) qui sont traditionnellement recherchés par les archéologues qui veulent entreprendre des fouilles.

Ce sont des gens sérieux, qui se contentent de peu. La plus grande partie de leur salaire, ils la dépensent pour leur famille à laquelle ils envoient des tissus, des vivres (1) et de l'argent. Ils ne pensent qu'au moment où, trop âgés pour rendre encore quelque service, ils se retireront dans leur village natal et vivront de leurs économies. Mais rien ne les presse : ils vivent entre eux dans un milieu qui présente pour eux un intérêt certain et des avantages évidents.

5. Conclusion: Il faut bien reconnaître que les Nubiens sont satisfaits de leur sort. Interrogeons-les: ils n'ont qu'une vague nostalgie de leur pays natal; ils s'estiment heureux de pouvoir vivre mieux que leurs pères. Aucun d'entre eux ne voudrait retourner à la terre.

Les plus à plaindre seraient les femmes. Mais elles paraissent, elles aussi, se contenter de la vie qu'elles ont. Nulle part ailleurs, elles n'auraient maison si vaste et si coquette; nulle part ailleurs elles ne pourraient flâner pendant neuf mois de l'année; nulle part ailleurs elles ne retrouveraient cette atmosphère familiale du village qu'elles ont toujours connu.

Toujours propres dans leurs vêtements de couleurs recouverts de la mélayah noire, elles participent à la vie commune du district où elles sont installées : joie des retrouvailles quand un mari, un fils, un parent ou un ami vient en congé; peine partagée lorsqu'elles vont par groupes sombres, le long de la berge sableuse, aux funérailles d'un voisin qui habitait quelques kilomètres plus loin.

# Traits caractéristiques de l'économie actuelle de la Basse-Nubie :

1. Les stations de pompage ont créé des oasis de culture artificielles. Les terres agricoles sont des terres nouvelles situées à un niveau supérieur à celui des anciens terrains cultivés avant la construction du Barrage d'Assouan et ses deux surélévations, sauf à Ferayg où une digue protège des terres qui seraient normalement inondées. Ces zones agricoles ne sont pas recouvertes par les eaux de la crue; elles s'épuisent donc et il faudrait, un jour, les reconstituer avec des engrais artificiels.

- 2. Des raisons climatiques et économiques imposent à la Basse-Nubie le maintien des cultures traditionnelles. Un seul article d'exportation : les dattes. Les importations sont constituées essentiellement par des produits alimentaires et par des produits fabriqués. Mais comme il s'agit souvent d'importations faites à titre individuel, il est difficile de les évaluer.
- 3. L'élevage est moins important qu'il ne l'était au siècle dernier. Cela est dû à la diminution de la superficie des terres cultivées. Contrairement à ce qui se passait autrefois, le bétail reste à l'étable pendant la plus grande partie de l'année où il se nourrit de fourrage sec; il ne sort que pendant la saison la plus chaude, et c'est pour lui que les terres immergées sont cultivées en été.
  - 4. Il n'y a pratiquement plus d'artisanat.
- 5. Il n'en demeure pas moins que la population de la Basse-Nubie, population entièrement rurale, est plus riche qu'elle ne l'était autrefois, malgré la disparition presque totale de ses terres de culture.
- 6. En conséquence, on peut dire qu'il y a plus de trente ans que les habitants des trois-quarts de la Basse-Nubie égyptienne dépendent à peu près totalement de l'extérieur, autant pour leur nourriture que pour leurs vêtements et les objets d'usage courant;
  - 7. et qu'ils s'en montrent satisfaits.

#### III. — CONCLUSION GENERALE

Une étude sur la Basse-Nubie égyptienne ne serait pas complète si l'on n'essayait pas d'imaginer quelles seront les réactions de ses habitants lorsque les eaux retenues par le Haut-Barrage (Sadd el-Ali) commenceront à inonder leurs terres, leurs villages et tout le paysage qu'ils ont toujours connu : inondation définitive, contre laquelle il n'y a aucun recours possible.

La première mise en eau du Haut-Barrage (Sadd el-Ali) est prévue pour 1964; à partir du 1<sup>er</sup> octobre 1964, les eaux commenceront à Bulletin, t. XXXV.

<sup>(1)</sup> Un bateau-poste part de Chellal (Assouan) deux fois par semaine. Il s'arrête dans chaque village où il dépose les colis envoyés par les «émigrés».

submerger les terres situées au-dessus de la cote 121 pour atteindre la cote 128 le 1° janvier 1965, la cote 134 le 1° janvier 1966, la cote 150 le 1° janvier 1968 et dépasser la cote 164 à partir du 1° janvier 1969.

Ainsi, avant même la submersion de la cote d'alerte (donc avant le 1° octobre 1964), toutes les maisons de la Basse-Nubie égyptienne auront dû être abandonnées. Mais le nouveau lac de retenue n'atteindra définitivement ses rives qu'en 1969-1970. Aussi une reconstruction immédiate des villages nubiens en Nubie même est-elle impossible.

Dans ces conditions, le Gouvernement de la République Arabe Unie a prévu un plan de transfert des populations nubiennes. Avec sagesse, il a considéré que c'était là le seul moyen de venir en aide à ceux qui se sacrifiaient, une fois de plus, pour assurer le mieux-être de leurs compatriotes du Nord.

La réinstallation des Nubiens a été judicieusement envisagée; les autorités responsables, instruites des traditions historiques, ont choisi, comme lieu d'implantation des «émigrés», toute la région comprise entre Esna et Kom-Ombo, et spécialement la grande plaine de Kom-Ombo. Des maisons sont construites, des terres préparées. Et le programme des travaux est fidèlement suivi.

L'avenir immédiat est donc clair. Mais les Nubiens, surtout les femmes et les vieillards, n'auront-ils pas la nostalgie de leurs déserts et de leur vie ancienne? Et lorsque le Haut-Barrage (Sadd el-Ali) sera achevé, lorsque son lac de retenue délimitera ses rives, une partie des Nubiens transplantés viendra peut-être se fixer à nouveau entre la première cataracte et la frontière soudanaise et renouer avec une tradition déjà bien établie?

Déjà, dans un article précédent, Hassan Awad avait traité de ce problème: « Le paysage rural n'ira pas sans être affecté en amont du barrage. Les villages nubiens qui ont déjà changé de site plus d'une fois pour s'adapter aux conditions créées par la construction du Barrage d'Assouan et ses deux surélévations, devront de nouveau être déplacés. D'autres, non touchés jusqu'à maintenant, subiront aussi le même sort. Des champs temporairement recouverts par les eaux du réservoir actuel ou conquis sur les terres hautes loin de la portée des eaux seront

définitivement engloutis. On prévoit un transfert de la population qui serait installée dans les ouadis environnants, facilement irrigables (1)».

Au terme de notre étude, nous croyons pouvoir être encore plus précis.

Il y a bien longtemps que les habitants de Basse-Nubie qui ont voulu quitter leur terre natale se sont installés au nord de la première cataracte (2). D'autres les imiteront sûrement après avoir connu, quelques années durant, une vie plus facile entre Esna et Kom-Ombo. Toutefois certains d'entre eux n'abandonneront pas de gaieté de cœur une contrée qu'ils aiment.

Mais la Basse-Nubie égyptienne ne disparaîtra pas pour autant. Elle sera toujours limitée par le Barrage au nord et par la frontière soudanaise au sud. Ses vestiges archéologiques, ceux qui seront transportés près du Haut-Barrage (Sadd el-Ali), à Ouadi es-Seboua, à Amada et à Abou-Simbel, et les temples d'Abou-Simbel eux-mêmes, maintiendront une « patrie » nubienne.

Les Nubiens ont pratiquement tout perdu en 1934 au moment de la seconde surélévation du Barrage d'Assouan; aussi ceux qui reviendront n'auront aucune illusion. Pourtant, dans la nouvelle Basse-Nubie, ils retrouveront les conditions de vie qui sont les leurs depuis plus d'un demi-siècle.

Des oasis cultivables existeront encore : une carte dressée par les services du Haut-Barrage (Sadd el-Ali) les indiquent nettement, soit du nord au sud :

- 1. rive occidentale : grande oasis en arrière de Kalabcha jusqu'à Gerf-Hussein ;
- 2. rive orientale : grande oasis en arrière de Kouban jusqu'à Sayala;
- 3. rive occidentale: grande oasis au nord du temple d'Abou-Simbel;

<sup>(1)</sup> Hassan Awad, Le Sadd el-Ali, le plus grand réservoir du monde et ses conséquences géographiques, dans Bulletin de la Société de Géographie d'Egypte, t. XXX, p. 14.

<sup>(2)</sup> Certaines familles se sont regroupées, il y a une ou deux générations, à Assouan (vieille tradition) ou à Kom-Ombo où elles étaient attirées par les avantages offerts par la Sucrerie.

- 4. rive occidentale : large bande qui va des temples d'Abou-Simbel à la frontière soudanaise (22° parallèle);
- 5. rive orientale : petite bande en arrière de Koustoul, jusqu'à la frontière soudanaise, dans la vallée du Nil.

Les stations de pompage existantes n'auront qu'à s'y transporter pour en assurer l'irrigation pérenne, redonner à la Basse-Nubie une superficie de zones agricoles au moins égale à celle qui existe actuellement (19.000 feddans, soit environ 8.000 hectares) et reconstituer les palmeraies.

On pourrait aussi prévoir, après étude sérieuse des sols, une « bonification» des terres et, peut-être même, accroître dans des proportions considérables l'étendue prévue des terres à ensemencer.

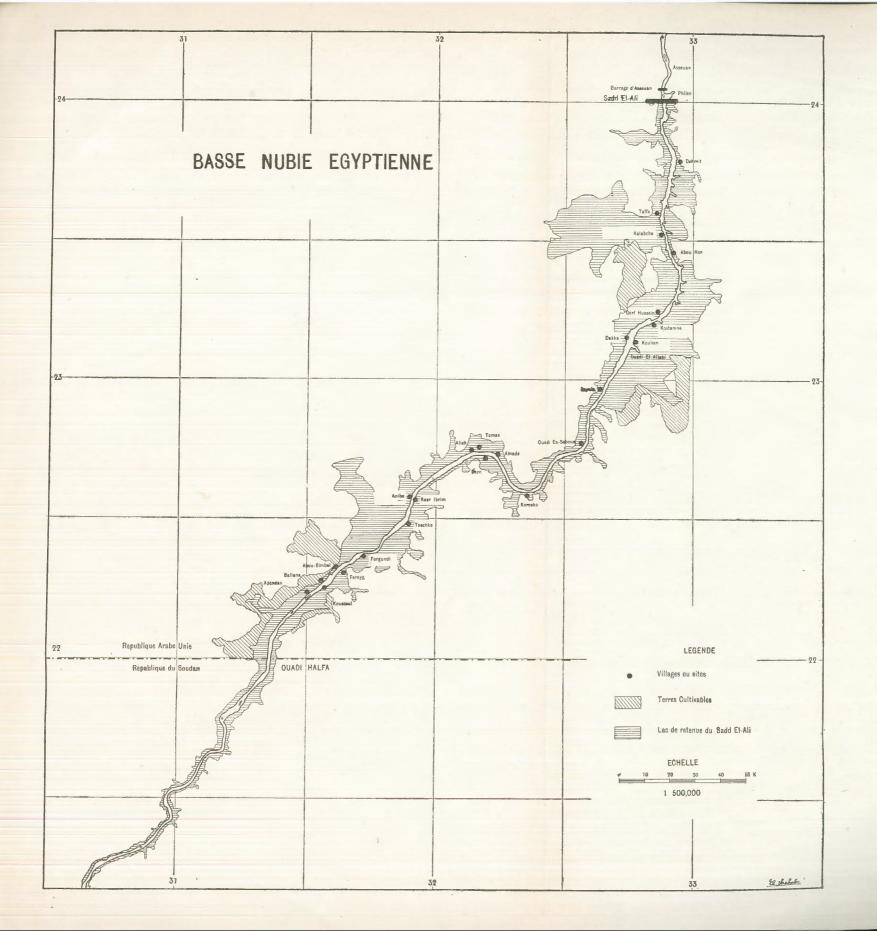
Enfin le nouveau lac de retenue (1) sera soumis à des fluctuations importantes :

- le niveau maximum 182 m. sera atteint une fois tous les trente ans ;
- le niveau minimum 147 m. sera atteint une fois tous les cent ans;
- le niveau moyen variera chaque année entre 165 et 175 mètres.

Les fluctuations annuelles sont, pour l'élevage en particulier, d'un intérêt capital. En effet une différence de niveau de quelques mètres peut découvrir en largeur, surtout dans le désert occidental, des kilomètres de sol. Ce sol découvert, au bout de quelques années, aura reçu une couche suffisante de limon pour donner naissance à des pâturages temporaires d'une étendue considérable.

En bref, rien n'empêche d'imaginer que le paysage de la Basse-Nubie égyptienne puisse très facilement se reconstituer. Les villages pourront à nouveau se reconstruire sur les bords du lac de retenue dans les conditions mêmes où ils se sont déplacés au moins deux fois. Et les Nubiens pourront continuer à vivre aussi heureux qu'ils vivent actuellement, sans même qu'ils aient à modifier, une fois nouvelle, leur genre de vie.

<sup>(1)</sup> La pêche y sera au moins aussi fructueuse que dans le lac actuel.



# STUDIES ON THE ECOLOGY OF THE RED SEA COASTAL LAND

I. THE DISTRICT OF GEBEL ATAQA

AND EL-GALALA EL-BAHARIYA

BY

M. KASSAS AND M. A. ZAHRAN

#### PREFACE

The present paper is the first in a series of reports on an ecological survey of the Red Sea coastal land of Egypt. Apart from the valuable floristic studies by: Ruprecht (1849), Schweinfurth (1865-1899), Drar (1936-1938), Täckholm (1956), etc., the plant ecology of the Red Sea basin was the subject of a few studies. Schweinfurth (1865-1899) accumulated valuable ecological observations on the Red Sea coastal land. Notable were his remarks on the Elba (Egypt) and Erkwit (Sudan) regions. Ferrar (1914) described some of the mangrove swamps of the northern Red Sea coast. Troll (1935) gave a more detailed account on the southern part of the Red Sea coastal land and elaborated the hypothesis of the mist oasis as exemplified by the Erkwit mountains. Vesey-FitzGerald (1955, 1957) described the vegetation of the Red Sea coastal land of Saudi Arabia and recognized a number of vegetational and ecological types mostly organized in zones : littoral marsh, coastal desert plain, coastal foothills, mountain ranges, wadis, etc. Kassas (1956, 1957 and 1960) presents ecological information on the Red Sea coastal land of Sudan and gives detailed analyses of the plant community types and their vegetational and ecological relationships.

Bulletin, t. XXXV.

STUDIES ON THE ECOLOGY

Montasir (1938) gives an ecological description of the Hurghada district and a Hurghada-Quseir-Qena transect. He recognizes the maritime vegetation (algae and submerged flowering plants), the salt marsh vegetation (Arthrocnemon glaucum, etc.), the peculiar vegetation of Wadi Melaha, the mangrove vegetation of Abu-Minqar island, and the desert vegetation of the wadis. This is perhaps the first attempt at an ecological survey of this part of the Eastern Desert and the Red Sea coast of Egypt. Hassib (1951) gives a life-form spectrum of the flora of the Red Sea region (Egypt) and cites a number of submerged and terrestrial community types.

#### 1. GEOLOGY AND GEOMORPHOLOGY

The district under consideration in this part, comprises a coastal plain with Gebel Ataqa on its north side, Gebel El-Galala El-Bahariya (1) on its south side, the plateau of the Eastern Desert to its west and the Gulf of Suez to its east. Extending eastward from the plateau, two hill groups form conspicuous ridges, namely: Gebel Kahaliya ridge and Gebel Akheider ridge. There are three main drainage systems and innumerable smaller runnels. This means that the present district includes the following geomorphological units (see map, Fig. 1):

- 1.1 Gebel Ataqa.
- 1.2 Wadi Hagul Drainage System.
- 1.3 Gebel Kahaliya Ridge.
- 1.4 Wadi El-Bada Drainage System.
- 1.5 Gebel Akheider Ridge.
- 1.6 Wadi El-Ghweibba Drainage System.
- 1.7 Gebel El-Galala El-Bahariya (1).
- 1.8 Coastal Plain.

For the geological information we depend on the works of Sadek (1926 and 1959), (see map, Fig. 1).

#### 1.1 GEBEL ATAQA

This is a mountain block covering an area of about 300 sq. kms. and rising up to c. 900 meter O.D. It is bounded on its north and east margins by precipitous cliffs dropping abruptly for 300-400 meter. To the west and south it slopes gradually. This rocky massif is reticulately dissected by water runnels that are organized into drainage systems each with a main channel (wadi) receiving water from branching and rebranching affluents. These systems vary in their extent. The drainage runnels of the northern side debouch into Wadi Bahara which runs parallel to the Cairo-Suez Road. The runnels on the east side form a great number of wadis each with a limited catchment area. Of these we may mention Wadi Aber, Wadi Moghra north and Wadi Moghra south. On the southwestern side there are a few wadis representing gradual increase in the catchment area: Wadi Gimal, Wadi El-Ramiya and Wadi Hommath. The runnels of the southwestern and western slopes drain into Wadi Hagul.

The main body of Gebel Ataqa is formed of nummulitic limestones of the middle Eocene. On the south and (more markedly) on the southwest side there are beds of sandstones, ochreous grits and marls of the upper Eocene. On the east and southeast sides are exposed, by faulting, beds of red sandy marls and dolomitic limestones of the Cretaceous.

Wadi Gimal issues from the southeast corner of Gebel Ataqa collecting its water from the Eocene country and cutting across the Cretaceous limestones before traversing the coastal plain towards the Gulf.

Wadi El-Ramiya has some of its upstream runnels on the Eocene scarp, but its main part cuts through white coralline limestone of the lower Miocene and then issues on the plain near the conical hills of Barabir.

Wadi Hommath is a large drainage system on the southeast Ataqa. It has two main tributaries namely Wadi Naqa and Wadi Alda. Its upstream affluents drain the margins of the Eocene formations before

<sup>(1)</sup> Henceforth referred to as Galala B.

cutting across the lower Eocene limestone at the southern feet of Ataqa. But for the main part it traverses the beds of the middle Miocene (marls, grits, yellow limestone, etc.), then crosses the gravelly coastal plain and finally pours into the Gulf at the locality of El-Hafair.

### 1.2 WADI HAGUL DRAINAGE SYSTEM

This is an extensive wadi occupying the valley depression between Gebel Ataqa to the north and the Kahaliya ridge to the south. Its main channel extends for about 35 km. and collects drainage on both sides. The upstream part of the wadi cuts its shallow channel through ochreous-coloured marls, grits and Carolia-beds of the upper Eocene. In this part it receives from both sides affluents draining the western portion of the southern slopes of Gebel Ataqa on one side and the scarp of Gebel Kahaliya on the other (see Pl. III, A and B). The main channel of the wadi proceeds in a southeast direction, traversing limestone beds of the Miocene, with banks rising up to 10 meter high. In this part it receives its main tributaries, namely: Wadi Um Reeshat, Wadi Um Rimth and Wadi Monir from Gebel Ataqa; Wadi Marrakh and Wadi Abu Zeita from Gebel Kahaliya and Gebel Um Zeita respectively. Further downstream the wadi widens and cuts its way across Recent alluvial gravels before it finally traverses the coastal plain towards the Gulf.

### 1.3 GEBEL KAHALIYA RIDGE

This is a limestone ridge comprising Gebel Abu Treifia, Gebel Kahaliya and Gebel Um Zeita. Gebel Kahaliya rises up to about 600 meter O.D. with vertical scarps on the northeastern side (PL. III, B) and gradual slopes on the southwestern side. The drainage from the former scarps feeds Wadi Hagul, while that of the southwestern slopes feeds Wadi El-Bada.

Gebel Um Zeita is a low plateau rising to about 250 meter O.D. and forms the southeastern part of this ridge. Its drainage goes to Wadi Hagul on the north side and to Wadi El-Bada on the south side. The main part of this ridge is built of middle Eocene nummulitic limestone. Faulted on its northeast and southeast sides is a discontinuous fringe

of ochreous marls, and yellow sandy limestone of the upper Eocene, together with a few patches of Oligocene gravels. These are followed by Miocene beds on the eastern sides of the ridge. Unlike Gebel Ataqa and Gebel Galala B, this ridge is separated from the shore-line by a wide coastal plain (c. 18 kilometer wide).

### 1.4 WADI EL-BADA DRAINAGE SYSTEM

Wadi El-Bada is one of the main drainage systems of the district under consideration. It occupies the valley between the Kahaliya ridge to the north and Gebel Akheider to the south, and receives drainage from both sides. Its main tributaries start in the limestone plateau of the Eastern Desert. Those of the north side, namely: Wadi Um Remeila and Wadi Um Mithla drain the middle Eocene nummulitic limestone of Gebel Zeita and its extension into the Eastern Desert plateau; proceed across the upper Eocene marls and sandy limestone, the flint gravels of the Oligocene, the limestone of the lower Miocene, the marly limestone of the middle Miocene; then join the main wadi (Bada). The latter cuts its channel across the Recent gravels and sands of the coastal plain. The western and southern affluents namely: Wadi Noqra and Wadi El-Ramliya drain the north scarps of Gebel Noqra and Gebel El-Ramliya. These are built of middle Eocene limestone with narrow strips of upper Eocene beds.

### 1.5 GEBEL AKHEIDER RIDGE

This is a ridge forming an eastward extension of the Eocene plateau of the Eastern Desert. It comprises Gebel Noqra (436 meter O.D.) on the west side, Gebel Akheider (367 meter O.D.) on the east side, and Gebel El-Ramliya plateau (300 meter O.D.). The group is characterized by bold scarps on the northeast side, and gentle slopes on the south side. This difference is due to the geological structures. The fault bounded northern cliff is of the middle Eocene limestone whereas the southern side exposes a succession of middle and upper Eocene, Oligocene gravels and sands, and Miocene grits and sandstones. The topographic pattern causes the main bulk of the drainage of the Gebel Akheider ridge to feed the wadis on the southern side (affluents of Wadi

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El-Ghweibba). In the middle of Gebel Akheider rises a black conical shaped hill of basalt which forms of the conspicuous landmark of the area.

### 1.6 WADI EL-GHWEIBBA DRAINAGE

This is the longest and most extensive drainage system of the area. Its tributaries extend across the plateau of the Eastern Desert some 70 kilometers to the west of the coast. Within its downstream stretch (about 35 km. long) the channel of the wadi occupies the floor of the wide valley between the Akheider ridge on the north side and the Galala B on the south side. This valley ranges in width from 10 to 15 km. The main channel of the wadi occupies the north side of this valley and receives tributaries on both sides. Across the coastal plain the channel is wide and includes several water lines. The wadi forms a large delta where the ground is covered with deep deposits including water-borne silts and wind-borne sands. This deltaic formation is cultivated by the local inhabitants in the years with good rainfall, (e.g. winter 1961-1962).

### 1.7 GEBEL EL-GALALA EL-BAHARIYA

This is a great massif block which forms one of the most important topographical features on the west side of the Gulf of Suez. The north edge is bounded by steep cliffs extending for about 60 km. from east to west and rising to 977 meter O.D. near its eastern (seaward) end and about 700 meter O.D. near its western (inland) end. The main bulk of the Galala B is formed of middle Eocene limestone. The eastern part of the north scarp exposes successive fringes of: lower Eocene limestone, upper Cretaceous dolomitic and chalky limestones, and lower Cretaceous (Nubian) sandstones. The first fringe is by far the longest in extension (c. 35 km.), the Nubian sandstone fringe is the shortest (c. 5 km.). At the northeast corner of the massif (Khashm El-Galala) is exposed a block of Jurassic sandstones followed inland by a strip of Nubian sandstone. The northwest extension of the Galala B mass is a triangular block, bounded by Wadi El-Qena and Wadi El-Ghul, which merits a special note. Its central part is formed of middle Eocene limestone surrounded by upper Eocene beds on its three sides. On its southeast side it has a fringe of Oligocene formation including gravel beds and strips of basalt sheets, followed by middle Miocene marks and upper Miocene sandstone.

On its eastern side the Galala cliffs face the Gulf of Suez. The plain separating them is very narrow. The cliffs expose the Eocene limestone followed by the upper Cretaceous limestone and the lower Cretaceous (Nubian) sandstone. Both Cretaceous formations are very well developed on the southern side of Galala B which drains into Wadi Araba.

At the foot of Khashm El-Galala issues a spring of «slightly warm sulphuretted water of very brackish nature», Ain-Sokhna. Most probably it owes its origin to the fault at the foot of the mountain block. Some of the wadis cutting across the east scarps of Galala B further south, have similar springs though of limited supply. We shall later deal with the special vegetation of these oasis-like localities.

### 1.8 COASTAL PLAIN

The coastal plain is the open ground which extends from the feet of the hills described above to the shore of the Gulf of Suez. This plain is very narrow in the southern part (facing Galala); widens in the medium stretch (between Galala and Ataqa) where it includes the inland extensions (valleys) containing the three main drainage systems; and is of limited extent in the northern part (facing Ataqa). In the first mentioned part it is practically non-existing in certain localities where the Galala B scarp rises directly from the water of the Gulf. It does not exceed a few hundreds of meters in the localities where it is of some extent. The medium part has an average width of about 10 km., and a very gradual slope with a grade of about 1 in 100. The northern part of the plain has a ground slope of about 5 in 100 and an average width of about one kilometer with the exception of the Ras-Adabiya which is a triangular peninsula extending some three kilometers into the Gulf. The plain widens considerably to the west and northwest of the port of Suez.

From an ecological point of view the coastal plain is divisible into two ecosystems: the littoral saline system and the desert plain system. The former is the zone of the plain which is subject to the inundation of the sea water during high tide or strong gales; or which is affected by the lateral extension of the sea water (underground). The desert plain is the inland zone which is not subject to the direct influence of the sea water. The extent of each of the two systems is dependent on the local conditions of topography and surface deposits. Both systems are poorly developed in the south, and are well developed in the medium part. In the north the desert plain extends till the shore line in certain areas, and in others both systems are well developed.

Near the hills the desert plain is covered with coarse boulders, further away the surface sediments become less coarse and include smaller gravel and sand. The coarse deposits are usually mixed but are either predominantly limestone fragments or flint (siliceous) gravels, depending on the geological formation of origin. The littoral system is usually characterized by sandy hillocks and mounds, or by flats of calcareous silt (tidal mud).

### 2. CLIMATE

### 2.1 RAINFALE

Table 1 gives the monthly and annual rainfall recorded in the years 1945-1959, together with the averages of 1921-1945 contained in the Climatic Normals for Egypt. The features to be noticed are: the scantiness of the annual rainfall (c. 25 mm.), its seasonality (winter rainfall), and its great variability. The annual rainfall is far within the limits of the desert climate. The four months June-September are rainless. The main bulk of the rainfall (80 %) falls in the five months October-February. The variability of rainfall is a feature of the monthly and the yearly records. If we consider the rainfall records in January during the period 1945-1959, we notice that in nine years it is one millimeter or less, in four years it is 5 mm. or more, being 10.5 mm. in January 1956. Similar remarks may be made on all the other rainy months. Worthy of an especial note is the month of May. In the period 15 years recorded in Table 1, 11 years have practically rainless May, whereas in May 1945 the record is 19.5 mm.

The variability in the annual rainfall is also clearly shown. Years with exceptionally low or exceptionally high rainfall are recurrent. The years

Table 1

Climatic particulars of Suez (Port Tewfik), from records of the Department of Meteorology.

	1	1		1	1		1		T	1	1	1	
	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	Jun.	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Rainf	all in mil	limeters											
1945	tr.	1.0	0.0	0.0	19.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.4	24.9
1946	5.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	9.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	tr.	0.0	tr.	14.4
1947	1.8	tr.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	tr.	2.0	3.0	6.8
1948	tr.	6.2	0.5	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	tr.	12.0	0.0	19.3
1949	1.0	1.0	tr.	tr.	tr.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0
1950	tr.	0.3	0.1	2.0	4.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	tr.	0.0	tr.	6.8
1951	0.3	tr.	5.0	0.0	tr.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	28.0	33.3
1952	5.0	21.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	30.0	tr.	0.8	56.8
1952	0.0	11.0	1.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	12.0	4.0	12.0	46.3
1954	tr.	6.0	tr.	9.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.0	19.0	41.0
1954	1.0	0.0	tr.	tr.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	11.0	2.5	14.5
1956	10.5	27.5	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	tr.	0.0	0.0	0.0	tr.	15.0	55.0
1950	8.0	6.8	8.0	4.0	10.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.5	0.3	tr.	40.6
	3.0		0.0	0.0	tr.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	tr.	0.1	0.0	3.1
1958		tr.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	19.6
1959	0.5	16.9	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0		10.0
Average										-			
1945-59	2.42	6.51	1.12	1.04	2.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.03	3.6	6.04	26.5
Average		, ,	*										
1921-45	2.0	2.0	4.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	5.0	4.0	21.0
Temp	erature in	°C (aver	age 1921	-45)									
Mean				-		1	Ī						
Daily Mx.	19.9	21.0	24.0	28.3	32.5	34.9	36.3	36.2	33.5	31.0	26.5	21.7	28.8
						-		,					
Mean Daily Mn.	9.4	10.0	12.1	14.6	18.6	20.9	22.7	23.1	21.3	19.2	15.5	10.8	16.5
Mean													
of day	13.8	14.5	17.1	20.3	24.4	26.9	28.4	28.5	26.3	24.0	20.0	15.4	21.7
Evano	ration, Pi	che — mi	llimeters	ner day (	average 1	991-45)				1	1	•	
Livapo	1	1				1	100	1,0,4	10.8	8.0	6.5	5.2	9.3
i,	5.1	5.8	7.6	10.1	12.5	13.7	12.3	12.4	10.8	0.0	0.0	3.2	3.0

1949 and 1958 were very dry: total annual rainfall of 2.0 and 3.1 mm. The years 1952 and 1956 were relatively wet: rainfall 56.8 and 55.0 mm.

One of the remarkable features of the rainfall is the sudden cloudbursts which bring torrential rainfall, e.g. 12 mm. of rain on 16 February 1943, 16 mm. of rain on 8 March 1924, 12.3 mm. of rain on 12 May 1945, 32.3 mm. of rain on 9 November 1939, 28.5 mm. of rain on 9 December 1921. Such accidents will leave their effect on the plants and their habitat. The wadis and water runnels will suddenly be transformed into torrential streams sweeping in their way the floors and probably uprooting many of the plants. These ephemeral streams may also replenish the underground reservoirs of water which receive but very little water of the normal rainfall.

### 2.2 Type of CLIMATE

The climate is obviously arid. The low rainfall is one aspect of its aridity. The high temperatures, especially during the long rainless season, and the intense evaporation are well shown in the data at the bottom of Table 1. The De Martonne formula (I=P/T+10) will show that aridity is a character of all the months. The pluviothermic coefficient of Emberger (1951):

$$Q = P/(M+m) (M-m) \times 100$$

where P = annual rainfall (mm.), M = mean maximum temperature for the warmest month and m = mean minimum temperature for the coldest month (°C). For Suez Q = 2.0, that is, it falls within the type: Saharan Mediterranean climate as classified by Emberger (1951).

According to the system suggested by Meigs (1953) for the classification of arid and semiarid climates, Suez lies within the type AC 23. In the Miller (1953, p. 98) classification the climate of the area under consideration may be described as hot desert. Other formulae such as Thornthwaite (1948), Bagnouls and Gaussen (1953) elaborated by Walter (1955), etc. will agree in describing the climate as arid or extremely arid.

### 3. ECOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

### 3.1 WADIS DRAINING EAST ATAQA

### 3.11 Wadi Aber:

Wadi Aber cuts across the east scarp of Gebel Ataqa and extends across the coastal plain for about 5 kilometers before it pours into the Gulf at about 8 kilometers to the south of Suez. It receives several short tributaries which drain the precipitous slopes on both sides of the main channel of the wadi.

The vegetation of the main channel varies in apparent relationship with the surface sediments that are usually mixed rock detritus including coarse boulders. The vegetation is mostly dominated by *Cleome droserifolia*. The following is a representative stand (1):

Cleome droserifolia	5. fr.	Pulicaria crispa	1. fl.
Lavandula stricta	3. fl.	Pulicaria undulata	1. fl.
Zilla spinosa	3. fl.	Rumex vesicarius	1. fl.
Haloxylon salicornicum	3.fr.	Retama raetam	1. g.
Zygophyllum coccineum	3.fr:	Artemisia judaica	1. fl.
Colocynthis vulgaris	2. fr.	Atriplex leucoclada	1. g.
Cucumis prophetarum		Echinops galalensis	1. fl.
Achillea fragrantissima	1. g.	Trichodesma africanum	1. fl.
Pityranthus tortuosus		Forskohlea tenacissima	
Helianthemum lippii		Silene linearis	+. fl.
Launaea spinosa		Heliotropium persicum	
Diplotaxis harra		Fagonia mollis	+. fl.
Aizoon canariense			

(6.6.1960, total plant cover = 3-5 %)

# 3.12 Wadi Moghra-hadeed:

This wadi is similar in its form and its plant cover to Wadi Aber. The vegetation is mostly a *Cleome droserifolia* community. The affluent runnels, cutting across the steep slopes of Ataqa include many (dry) water falls where *Capparis spinosa* is the most characteristic and the most abundant species.

### 3.13 Wadi Gimal:

In the main trunk of this wadi we may recognize two types of communities. The first is dominated by Zilla spinosa and occupies the main

channel which receives and contains the drainage water collecting in the wadi. It also receives the water-borne soft materials including fresh silt and sand. The second is dominated by *Haloxylon salicornicum* and occupies the higher terraces on both sides of the main channel. These terraces are usually built of rock detritus including rounded boulders and coarse wadi-fill material.

Here are two representative stands:

# (a) Zilla spinosa community:

Zilla spinosa	5. g.	Leptadenia pyrotechnica 1. g.
Cleome droserifolia	3. g.	Lindenbergia sinaica 1. g.
Pityranthus tortuosus	2. g.	Haloxylon salicornicum 1.g.
Iphiona mucronata	2. g.	Launaea spinosa 1. g.
Ochradenus baccatus	2. g.	Retama raetam 1. g.
Zygophyllum coccineum	2. g.	Colocynthis vulgaris +. g.
Artemisia judaica	2. g.	Fagonia mollis +. d.
Lavandula stricta	2. g.	

(18.12.1960, total plant cover = 10-15%)

# (b) Haloxylon salicornicum community:

Haloxylon salicornicum	5.d.	Zygophyllum coccineum	3.d.
Zilla spinosa	3.g.	Cleome droserifolia	3.d.
(18.12.1960,	total	plant cover = 5-10 %)	

### 3.14 Wadi Ramiya:

Wadi Ramiya is a drainage system comprising two main affluents joining near their emergence across the hills of El-Barabir. The deltaic part, which receives the two affluents, has a plant cover dominated by Retama raetam. Here is a representative stand:

Retama raetam	6. g.	Pennisetum dichotomum	1.±g.
Zilla spinosa	3. g.	Nitraria retusa	+. g.
Iphiona mucronata	3. g.	Pityranthus tortuosus	+. g.
Launaea spinosa	2. g.	Taverniera aegyptiaca	+. g.
Farsetia aegyptiaca	2. g.	Crotalaria aegyptiaca	+. d.
Haloxylon salicornicum	2. g.	Lavandula stricta	+. g.

(18.12.1960, total plant cover = 15-25%)

The first figure is an abundance estimate according to a slightly modified Domin scale (+-10); the second figure indicates the aspect of growth: g =green (in foliage), d =dry (leafless, not dead), f =flowering, f =fruiting, s =sprouting (new buds).

### 3. ECOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

### 3.1 WADIS DRAINING EAST ATAQA

### 3.11 Wadi Aber :

Wadi Aber cuts across the east scarp of Gebel Ataqa and extends across the coastal plain for about 5 kilometers before it pours into the Gulf at about 8 kilometers to the south of Suez. It receives several short tributaries which drain the precipitous slopes on both sides of the main channel of the wadi.

The vegetation of the main channel varies in apparent relationship with the surface sediments that are usually mixed rock detritus including coarse boulders. The vegetation is mostly dominated by *Cleome droserifolia*. The following is a representative stand (1):

Cleome droserifolia	5.fr.	Pulicaria crispa	1. fl.
Lavandula stricta	3. fl.	Pulicaria undulata	1. fl.
Zilla spinosa	3. fl.	Rumex vesicarius	1. fl.
Haloxylon salicornicum	3. fr.	Retama raetam	1. g.
Zygophyllum coccineum	3. fr:	Artemisia judaica	1. fl.
Colocynthis vulgaris	2. fr.	Atriplex leucoclada	1. g.
Cucumis prophetarum	1. fr.	Echinops galalensis	1. fl.
Achillea fragrantissima		Trichodesma africanum	1. fl.
Pityranthus tortuosus	1.fr.	Forskohlea tenacissima	1. fl.
Helianthemum lippii		Silene linearis	+. fl.
Launaea spinosa		Heliotropium persicum	+. fl.
Diplotaxis harra	+. fl.	Fagonia mollis	+. fl.
Aizoon canariense	+. d.		
(6.6.1960,	total plan	nt cover = $3-5\%$	

# 3.12 Wadi Moghra-hadeed:

This wadi is similar in its form and its plant cover to Wadi Aber. The vegetation is mostly a *Cleome droserifolia* community. The affluent runnels, cutting across the steep slopes of Ataqa include many (dry) water falls where *Capparis spinosa* is the most characteristic and the most abundant species.

### 3.13 Wadi Gimal:

In the main trunk of this wadi we may recognize two types of communities. The first is dominated by Zilla spinosa and occupies the main

channel which receives and contains the drainage water collecting in the wadi. It also receives the water-borne soft materials including fresh silt and sand. The second is dominated by *Haloxylon salicornicum* and occupies the higher terraces on both sides of the main channel. These terraces are usually built of rock detritus including rounded boulders and coarse wadi-fill material.

Here are two representative stands:

### (a) Zilla spinosa community:

Zilla spinosa	5. g.	Leptadenia pyrotechnica	1. g.
Cleome droserifolia	3. g.	Lindenbergia sinaica	1. g.
Pityranthus tortuosus	2. g.	Haloxylon salicornicum	1.g.
Iphiona mucronata	2. g.	Launaea spinosa	1. g.
Ochradenus baccatus	2. g.	Retama raetam	1. g.
Zygophyllum coccineum	2. g.	Colocynthis vulgaris	+. g.
Artemisia judaica	2. g.	Fagonia mollis	+. d.
Lavandula stricta	2. g.		

(18.12.1960, total plant cover = 10-15%)

### (b) Haloxylon salicornicum community:

v		Zygophyllum coccineum	
Zilla spinosa	3. g.	Cleome droserifolia	3.d.

(18.12.1960, total plant cover = 5-10 %)

# 3.14 Wadi Ramiya:

Wadi Ramiya is a drainage system comprising two main affluents joining near their emergence across the hills of El-Barabir. The deltaic part, which receives the two affluents, has a plant cover dominated by Retama raetam. Here is a representative stand:

Retama raetam	6. g.	Pennisetum dichotomum	1.±g.
Zilla spinosa	3. g.	Nitraria retusa	+. g.
Iphiona mucronata	3. g.	Pityranthus tortuosus	+. g.
Launaea spinosa	2. g.	Taverniera aegyptiaca	+. g.
Farsetia aegyptiaca	2. g.	Crotalaria aegyptiaca	+. d.
Haloxylon salicornicum	2. g.	Lavandula stricta	+. g.

(18.12.1960, total plant cover = 15-25 %)

<sup>(1)</sup> The first figure is an abundance estimate according to a slightly modified Domin scale (+-10); the second figure indicates the aspect of growth: g =green (in foliage), d =dry (leafless, not dead), f =flowering, f =fruiting, s =sprouting (new buds).

STUDIES ON THE ECOLOGY

The main channels of the two main affluents are the habitat of a plant community dominated by *Launaea spinosa*. The following are two stands representing the two affluents:

0		
	North affluent	South affluent
Launaea spinosa	5. fl.	5. fl.
Zilla spinosa	4. d.	4. g.
Retama raetam	4. g.	2. g.
Iphiona mucronata	3. g.	4. g.
Pennisetum dichotomum	3. d.	_
Crotalaria aegyptiaca	3. g.	2. g.
Echinops galalensis	2. g.	2. g.
Lavandula stricta	2. g.	3. g.
Pityranthus tortuosus	2. g.	2. g.
Artemisia judaica	2. g.	1. g.
Zygophyllum coccineum.	2. g.	2. g.
Farsetia aegyptiaca	2. g.	-
Taverniera aegyptiaca	2. g.	
Gymnocarpos decandrum	1. g.	2. g.
Lasiurus hirsutus	1. d.	-
Cleome droserifolia	1. g.	2. g.
Helianthemum lippii	+. g.	_
Linaria aegyptiaca	+. g.	Personality
Scrophularia deserti	+. g.	
Zygophyllum decumbens	+. g.	+. g.
Salvia aegyptiaca	+. g.	
Colocynthis vulgaris	+. g.	_

(18.12.1960, total plant cover = 10-20 %)

Both these affluents receive consequent and subsequent runnels. The beds of the consequent affluents are often devoid of a continuous sheet of soil cover, the rocky bottom is only locally covered by discontinuous patches of sand and silt. Here is a representative stand of the plant cover:

Iphiona mucronata		Zygophyllum coccineum Pityranthus tortuosus	
Zygophyllum decumbens	3. g.	Cleome droserifolia	1. g.
		Launaea spinosa	1. g.
Farsetia aegyptiaca	1. g.		

(18.12.1960, total plant cover = 5 %)

The finer runnels that cut across the slopes are often covered by rock fragments. The plant cover is represented by the following stand:

Hyparrhenia hirta	5.d.	Fagonia mollis	2.d.
Fagonia bruguieri	2.d.	Centaurea aegyptiaca	2.d.
Helianthemum kahiricum	2. g.		

# (18.12.1960, total plant cover = 5 %)

The upstream part of the southern affluent is characterized by two community types. The first is dominated by Zygophyllum decumbens and covers areas with some surface accumulation of soft sediments, the second is dominated by Gymnocarpos decandrum and covers areas with barren rock bed.

# 3.15 Wadi South of Wadi Ramiya:

This is a wadi that cuts across the hilly ground of the Miocene limestone of the southeast corner of Ataqa. The bed of the wadi is covered by sand admixed with some rook detritus. The sand builds mounds around the plants especially the tussock forming grasses. This wadi is characterized by the abundance of *Panicum turgidum* and *Pennisetum dichotomum*. The following is a representative stand of this type of vegetation:

Panicum turgidum	5.d.	Gymnocarpos decandrum	2. fr.
		Crotalaria aegyptiaca	
Pityranthus tortuosus	4.d.	Echinops spinosissimus	2. fl.
Lasiurus hirsutus	3.d.	Zygophyllum decumbens	+. g.
Retama raetam	3. g.	Lavandula stricta	+. g.

# (7.6.1960, total plant cover = 10%)

In the westward (inland) extension of the wadi *Pennisetum dichotomum* gains ascendency and replaces *Panicum turgidum*. The following is a representative stand:

Pennisetum dichotomum	5. s.	Crotalaria aegyptiaca	2. g.
		Taverniera aegyptiaca	
Pityranthus tortuosus	3.fr.	Haloxylon salicornicum	2. ±
Artemisia judaica	2. fl.	-	

(7.6.1960, total plant cover = 10 %)

The affluents of this wadi, which collect water from the slopes of the hill, are characterized by an almost pure community of Lasiurus hirsutus, total plant cover 10-20%.

### 3.16 Wadi Hommath:

The sketch map of Fig. 2 shows the general distribution of the plant communities within the downstream part of Wadi Hommath. It is obvious that the downwash of the wadi has reduced the extent of typical salt marsh communities and has pushed the non-saline conditions further seaward.

The littoral part has a strip of sand sheet where Cressa cretica, Nitraria retusa and Imperata cylindrica are dominants. Within this sand belt there are relics of old date palm (Phoenix dactylifera) grove. This is followed, within the trunk of the wadi, by a zone of mixed vegetation: Zygophyllum album, Haloxylon salicornicum, Panicum turgidum, etc. Then there is a zone where Anabasis articulata builds up considerable hummocks. This is followed, further inland, by a country where Haloxylon salicornicum gains ascendancy. Further upstream the valley of the wadi may be differentiated into the main channel which contains the occasional torrents and the side gravelly terraces. The former is the habitat of Leptadenia pyrotechnica—Launaea spinosa community, the latter is that of Haloxylon salicornicum.

For the detailed description of the vegetation, especially of the down-stream part, a belt transect (AB) 2 km. long was laid along the main channel of the wadi extending inland from the shore line. A supplementary 200 m. long transect (CD) was laid across the littoral sandy zone to the south of the first transect, with the purpose of representing the Imperata cylindrica community.

### TRANSECT AB

Table 2 presents the data obtained from the analysis of the 100 quadrats ( $20 \times 20$  m. each) forming the AB transect. Each quadrat was mapped, the number of individuals counted and their areas measured. The concept of the individual varies according to the growth form. For Cressa cretica, Alhagi maurorum for instance, the individual is here

Analysis of one hundred  $20 \times 20$  m. quadrats forming a belt transect ( $20 \times 2000$  m.) set within the downstream part of Wadi Hommath. Level in cm. in relation to a zero point = sea water level at 5 p.m. on 26.6.1960. For Alhagi maurorum and Cressa cretica the number of individuals in each quadrat is given. For all the other species the number of individuals (first figure) and the total area in sq.m. (second figure) are given, areas less than one square meter are indicated with x, — = not recorded. One individual of Lavandula stricta was recorded in quadrat 35.

Quadrat No.	Level (cm.).	Cressa cretica	Zygophyllum album	Halocnemon	Nitraria retusa	Alhagi maurorum	Tamarix mannifera	Panicum turgidum	Launaea spinosa	Retama raetam	Haloxylon	Calligonum	Zygophyllum coccineum	Anabasis articulata	Farsetia aegyptiaca	Ephedra alata	Crotalaria aegyptiaca	Pennisetum dichotomum	Polycarpaea repens	Artemisia judaica	Zilla spinosa	Limonium pruinosum	Pityranthus tortuosus	Echinops spinosissimus	Lasiurus hirsutus	Gymnocarpos decandrum	Ochradenus
Sea water  1 2 3 4 5 6 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 526 27 28 29 30 31 32 23 33 4 45 56 6 67 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93 94 95 96 97 98 91 00 8 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	0.0 123 142 157 182 189 182 187 210 238 242 262 270 273 303 310 365 373 399 410 426 432 437 443 474 443 474 484 513 515 546 565 579 600 620 634 643 649 687 771 770 781 828 849 821 831 831 831 831 831 831 831 83	60 1650 4309 2832 414 803 550 —————————————————————————————————	5-x 12-9 5-x 12-9 5-x 9-13 3-4 12-3 2-x 6-1 1-3 35-14 6-11 14-7 2-x 9-2 3-2 5-x 8-x 10-3 2-x 4-x 16-3 2-x 4-x 1-x 4-x 4-1 11-2 12-2 7-3 4-x 6-x 6-x 8-x 6-x - 4-6 6-x - 4-6 6-x - 3-1 - 1-x 1-x 1-x 1-x 1-x 1-x 1-x 1-x 1-x	1-4	1-41 2-6 2-42  2-30 3-43 3-44 2-23	73 121 205 469 183 28 23 140 1	1-2 1-4 5-13 3-18 5-26 6-15 3-19		2-9			1 1-2	1-x			1-3	1-x		1-x	1-x	1-1	1-x	1-x	1-x 1-x	1-x	1-x	1-1 1-2 1-6 1-1 1-1 1-2 - 1-1 1-1 1-2 - 1-1 1-1

one shoot. The aerial shoots, though apparently independent, may in fact be chained by subterranean rhizomes and root-axes respectively. An individual of *Nitraria retusa*, *Anabasis articulata*, etc. may be a patch of ground, usually a low hillock, covered by the plant growth.

The distribution of the species within the quadrats of the transect shows their difference in ecological relationships. Halocnemon strobilaceum is a strictly littoral species, recorded only in quadrat No. 2. Cressa cretica is present in great numbers in the first seven quadrats but is especially abundant in quadrats 2, 3 and 4. Nitraria retusa is recorded within the quadrats 3-10. Within these quadrats, with the exception of quadrat 6, it is the species with the greatest cover. Tamarix mannifera is similarly restricted to the coastal part of the transect though its cover is, with the exception of quadrat 6, less than that of Nitraria retusa, see (PL. I, A). Alhagi maurorum is here closely associated with Nitraria retusa and Tamarix mannifera. Zygophyllum album is a species with a wider range. It extends, though discontinuously, from quadrat No. 2 till the last inland quadrat. But it is obviously much more abundant within the first 30 seaward quadrats. Panicum turgidum, Launaea spinosa, and Retama raetam are not recorded in the first seven quadrats but are occasionally found within the rest of the transect. Haloxylon salicornicum is the dominant species within the inland part of the transect. It is practically absent within the first 13 quadrats. From quadrat No. 14 onwards it gradually gains ascendancy, and from quadrat 71 till the end of the transect, and indeed further inland, Haloxylon salicornicum is the species with the greatest cover. Anabasis articulata is the species dominant (greatest cover) within the areas represented by quadrats 54-69 inclusive, see (PL. I, B). Quadrats on both sides of this group contain occasional mounds of Anabasis articulata but not beyond quadrat 12 (seaward) and quadrat 86 (inland). Other species recorded within the transect are occasionally or rarely found within its inland part. Within both quadrats No. 5 and 7 there are date palm trees (Phoenix dactylifera), see (Pl. I, A).

Figure 3 shows a number of chart quadrats representing samples of the AB transect. It is clear that *Cressa cretica* is most abundant within the four quadrats, exemplified in the figure by quadrats 3 and 4. Each dot represents 10 individuals. *Alhagi maurorum* which is absent in

quadrats 1 and 2 gradually increases till it becomes very abundant in quadrats 5 and 6. Each cross represents 10 individuals. Cressa cretica is absent in quadrat 8 and all the following quadrats.

Nitraria retusa and Tamarix mannifera are the most abundant bushes within the zone represented by quadrats 3-9 inclusive. Phoenix dactylifera is confined to this zone. Zygophyllum album is widely spread but is especially abundant within the zone represented by quadrats 11 and 12.

Quadrats 31-35 represent a zone of a mixed community type with Haloxylon salicornicum and Anabasis articulata as the two most abundant species. Associated plants include such desert species as: Farsetia aegyptiaca, Calligonum comosum, Crotalaria aegyptiaca, Ochradenus baccatus, Launaea spinosa etc. Quadrats 55-59 represent a zone where Anabasis articulata is clearly dominant. Associated species include: Haloxylon salicornicum, Launaea spinosa, Zilla spinosa, Pennisetum dichotomum etc. Quadrats 91-95 represent the inland zone of the transect which is dominated by Haloxylon salicornicum, see (Pl. II, A). It is noticeable that the Haloxylon salicornicum and Anabasis articulata build in the zones of their dominance hummocks of considerable size whereas in the zone represented by quadrats 31-35, their individuals—though numerous—are not big in size.

Table 3 presents analyses of soil samples collected to represent the various ecological zones within the transect AB. It is clear that the Cressa cretica and Nitraria retusa zones belong to the saline type of habitat. This is indicated by the high water soluble content especially at the surface. Sample No. 122 represents the sterile ground in between the Nitraria retusa hummocks, salt content = 10.95%. These salts are mainly chlorides and sulphates.

In the samples representing the hummocks of Anabasis articulata and Haloxylon salicornicum, the water soluble salts are relatively low. In these samples the sulphate content is negligible. In all the samples contained in the Table 3, the nitrate content is invariably low, the soluble phosphates and carbonates are practically absent. Iron is perhaps the only metal which is noted within the water-soluble salts, magnesium and aluminium are practically absent.

Table 3

Analyses of soil samples collected from the various zones of the transect AB across Wadi Hommath.

	Samples	Depth		I	Particle si	ze mm (	%)			Wa	ter solub	le materia	1 (% over	n dry wei	ght)		% 01	en dry w	eight.
Remarks	No.	(cm)	> 2	0.5-2	0.2-0.5	0.1-0.2	0.07-0.1	< 0.07	Total	Cl	'SO <sub>4</sub>	NO <sub>3</sub>	PO <sub>4</sub>	CO <sub>3</sub>	Fe	Mg	Loss	Organic C	HCl soluble
Ground of Cressa cretica, 27.6.1960.									-1										
	123	0- 2	0.2	3.3	22.0	67.6	5.1	1.8	6.5	2.33	2.2	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.002	0.0	2.75	0.0	84.4
	124	2- 22	1.8	3.7	31.5	58.5	3.0	1.5	0.64	0.14	0.38	0.0	0.0	-0.0	0.003	0.0	3.15	0.056	83.4
Hummock of Nitraria retusa, 27.6.1960.																			
	120	0- 30	0.5	0.7	13.6	73.7	7.8	3.6	4.8	1.34	2.27	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.003	0.0	7.75	0.0	46.5
	121	30- 50	0.0	0.5	15.9	67.1	11.3	5.0	2.2	0.48	0.93	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.002	0.0	2.5	0.00	45.7
Ground between hummocks of Nitraria retusa, 27.6.1960.																			
	122	0- 10	0.1	2.8	82.3	0.1	11.2	3.7	10.95	3.48	3.4	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.002	0.0	5.0	0.0	48.6
Hummock of Anabasis articulata, 10.6.1960.																			
	110	0- 5	0.0	0.2	5.7	88.6	2.3	3.2	1.32	0.2	0.34	0.022	0.0	0.0	0.002	0.0	4.0	0.245	39.2
	111	5- 30	0.4	0.3	6.5	82.4	7.4	3.1	0.57	0.1	0.28	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.001	0.0	3.5	0.15	41.0
	112	30- 70	0.0	0.4	11.4	75.6	7.7	5.0	0.29	0.09	0.12	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.001	0.0	1.5	0.06	41.1
Hummock of Anabasis articulata, 26.6.1960.							-						6						
	117	0- 15	0.0	0.1	3.8	79.2	12.3	4.7	0.275	0.075	tr.	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.002	0.0	1.0	0.9	41.43
	118	15- 65	0.0	0.5	6.5	77.0	11.8	4.4	0.485	0.075	tr.	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.001	0.0	2.75	0.23	42.95
	119	65- 80	8.0	3.35	23.3	49.5	9.0	7.0	0.585	0.078	tr.	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.001	0.0	3.0	0.01	42.96
Hummock of Haloxylon salicornicum.														-					
	116	0.10	0.0	0.4	4.8	69.2	20.0	5.2	0.13	0.07	tr.	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.1	41.3
	115	20- 30	0.0	0.1	15.5	74.5	7.4	2.6	0.12	0.06	tr.	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.01	41.1
	114	60- 80	0.0	0.2	8.9	74.5	12.2	4.3	0.17	0.1	tr.	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.05	40.94
	113	120-140	0.0	6.7	35.0	48.1	8.5	3.6	0.45	0.25	tr.	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.001	0.0	0.75	0.02	42.84

a

The estimate of the «loss on ignition» shows, amongst other things, the litter content. This is highest beneath the Nitraria retusa growth and lowest beneath the Haloxylon salicornicum growth. The content of the organic carbon is invariably low in all the samples.

The hydrochloric-acid-soluble-material content and the mechanical analysis of all the samples show that the mineral framework of these surface deposits is the same. The only exception is sample No. 124 (HCl soluble = 83.4%) which represents the tidal mud deposits. The rest of the samples are formed of a mixture of sand and limestone detritus in almost equal proportions: HCl soluble content ranging from 41 to 48%. Sample No. 119, representing the bottom layer beneath an Anabasis articulata hummock, shows the coarser texture of the wadi bed deposits on top of which the hummocks are built: gravel content = 8%.

### TRANSECT CD

Table 4 shows the records of the vegetational analysis of the ten quadrats of transect CD. This transect is set to represent a community type not comprised in transect AB: namely, the community dominated by *Imperata cylindrica* see (Pl. II, B). The habitat is a littoral belt of sand extending parallel to the shore line and varies in width from 150 to 300 m. It is well represented within the delta of Wadi Hommath, see sketch map, Fig. 2.

Cressa cretica is the most abundant species within quadrats 1-2, it is also well represented in quadrat 3. These three quadrats represent the same vegetational zone that is represented in quadrats 1-7 of transect AB, Alhagi maurorum and Zygophyllum album are common associates. Imperata cylindrica is the most abundant species within quadrats 3-7 inclusive, and is also very common in quadrats 8-10. Nitraria retusa increases inland: in the first five quadrats it is either absent or poorly developed. In quadrats 6-10, with the exception of quadrat 7, it is well represented. This part of the transect is comparable to the Nitraria retusa zone of transect AB.

Limonium pruinosum is a common species in the Imperata cylindrica community as is well shown in the transect CD. Desert species such as

Analysis of ten (20 × 20 m.) quadrats forming a belt transect (20 × 200 m.) set within the *Imperata cylindrica* area to the south of the delta of Wadi Hommath. Level in cm. in relation to a zero point = sea water level 12 N. on 27.6. 1960. For *Cressa cretica*, *Imperata cylindrica* and *Allagi maurorum* the number of individuals in each quadrat is given. For all the other species the number of individuals (first figure) and the area they cover in sq.m. (second figure) are given, areas less than one square meter are indicated with x. — not recorded.

Launaea •seoniqs	64   1   1   67   1   1   1
Zygophyllum.	1.x.
Suaeda vermiculata.	1.1 1.x
Limonium.	9.4 6.1 6.1 8.4 12.1 8.4 1.3 1.3 1.3
Nitraria .egusa.	1.1 1.1 1.3 10.2 6.4
Zygophyllum .mudis	22.22.1.22.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.
igadlA .murorusm	1091
Phoenix dactylifera.	£
Атіргоспетоп Візисит.	1.4
Imperata cylindrica.	140 1111 2100 1188 825 1148 386 139
Cressa cretica.	222
Level (cm.)	0.0 955 1134 1134 1151 204 1198 1193 1183
Quadrat	Sea water 1 2 3 4 7 7 10

Zygophyllum coccineum, Launaea spinosa, Haloxylon salicornicum, etc. are here either rarely found or absent.

Fig. 4 shows chart drawings for quadrats 3-7 inclusive. The *Imperata cylindrica* dominance is evident, quadrat 5 represents a pure growth of this plant and quadrat 4 shows the remarkable gregariousness of this species.

Table 5 gives the results of analyses of three sets of soil samples representing the three parts of transect CD. The first set (samples 132-134) is a profile within quadrat 2 where there is a preponderance of Cressa cretica and Alhagi maurorum. The second profile (samples 125 A, 125-127) is in quadrat 5 where Imperata cylindrica is the only species present. The third, situated in quadrat 10, represent the end of the transect where Nitraria retusa dominates.

The total content of the soluble salt is lowest in the *Imperata cylindrica* dominated part and is higher in the *Cressa cretica* littoral part and in the inland *Nitraria retusa* part. In the littoral part (samples 132-134) the chloride content is higher and the sulphate content is lower than in the inland part (samples 128-130). The mechanical analyses show little differences between the all samples in so far as the very coarse and the very fine ingredients are concerned. But within the ingredient classes (0.2-0.3) and (0.1-0.2) we notice that the littoral samples (132-134) contain a greater proportion (72-74%) of the finer ingredient. It may also be noted that sample 127, representing the bottom of the profile taken from quadrat 5, is very similar to the samples of the previous profile.

The HCl-soluble content is higher in the littoral profile than in the inland profiles. This is perhaps due to the great proportion of tidal mud and marine sediments in the seaward profile, and the great proportion of land sediments in the inland profiles.

# 3.2 WADI HAGUL

Depending on the vegetational and ecological features we may recognise three sectors of this wadi system namely:

(a) the upstream sector with the main channel cutting across Upper Eocene beds;

- (b) the middle sector with the main channel cutting across Miocene beds; and
- (c) the downstream sector with the main channel cutting across the alluvial deposits of the coastal plain.

# (a) The Upstream Sector:

The structure of the plant cover varies in apparent relation with the area drained. The finer runnels of this part of the wadi are short, their plant cover is sparse, their beds are covered with coarse boulders. The vegetation is usually a community dominated by *Iphiona mucronata*. (In the finest runnels the dominant species is *Fagonia mollis*). The following is a representative stand of this community type:

Iphiona mucronata  Fagonia mollis  Linaria aegyptiaca  Gymnocarpos decandrum	4. g. 3. g. 3. g.	Zygophyllum decumbens Scrophularia deserti Centaurea aegyptiaca Heliotropium arbainense	2. g. 1. g.
Helianthemum lippii	2. g.		

# (25.11.1960, total plant cover = 5 %)

Runnels with greater drainage than the above mentioned are usually characterized by a community dominated by Zygophyllum coccineum. The bed is covered with mixed rock detritus including some soft material. The following is a representative stand of this community type:

Zygophyłlum coccineum Iphiona mucronata Launaea spinosa	4. g.	Pennisetum dichotomum Retama raetam Crotalaria aegyptiaca	2. g. 1. fr.
Zilla spinosa	3.fr.	Trichodesma africanum	1. g.
Artemisia judaica		Heliotropium arbainense	1. g.
Fagonia mollis		Reaumuria hirtella	1. g.
Cleome droserifolia		Echinops spinosissimus	1. d.
Pityranthus tortuosus		Lavandula stricta	
Scrophularia deserti	2. g.		

# $(25.11.1960,\,\mathrm{total}\,\,\mathrm{plant}\,\,\mathrm{cover} = 10\text{-}20\,\%)$

Of particular interest here is Cleome droserifolia, a species which is very common eastward, but very rare westward, of this area.

Table 5

Analyses of soil samples collected from the various zones of the transect CD, Wadi Hommath, 27.6.1960.

	Samples	Depth		Р	article siz	e mm (%	( <sub>0</sub> )			Wat	er solubl	e material	(% over	dry wei	ght)		% 01	en dry w	eight.
Remarks	No.	(cm)	> 2	0.5-2	0.2-0.5	0.1-0.2	0.07-0.1	< 0.07	Total	Cl	SO <sub>4</sub>	NO <sub>3</sub>	PO <sub>4</sub>	CO <sub>3</sub>	Fe	Mg	Loss ignition	Organic C	HCl soluble
Ground of Cressa cretica,																			
quadrat 2.	400	0 5	0.3	0.4	17.6	74.3	6.3	0.9	3.35	1.34	0.41	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.002	0.0	2.5	0.15	71.5
Soft sand	132 133	0- 5 5-15	0.3	0.4	19.5	72.5	4.7	2.6	4.35	2.2	1.18	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.003	0.0	1.75	0.0	76.3
Soft sand	134	15-30	0.3	0.3	17.3	73.4	4.7	4.1	2.75	0.05	1.98	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.004	0.0	1.5	0.045	65.5
Moist soft sand	104	13-30	0.2	0.0	1710					-					-				
Ground of Imperata cylindrica,											+								
quadrat 5.								-						0.0	0.000	- 0.0	4.5	0.06	E4 0
	125 A	0- 2	0.0	9.5	36.7	43.9	6.0	3.9	1.7	0.65	0.55	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.003	0.0	1.5	0.06	51.9 55.8
	125	2-15	0.0	7.7	37.4	46.3	5.8	2.7	1.58	0.85	0.53	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.003	0.0	0.85	0.09	52.9
	126	15-65	0.0	3.6	30.6	58.0	5.4	1.4	1.74	0.23	0.78	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.003	0.0	1.85	0.05	52.7
	127	65-80	0.0	0.3	11.1	79.9	7.0	1.7	0.84	0.04	0.6	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.004	0.0	1.00	0.03	04.1
VV 1 6 NV.							-												
Hummock of Nitraria retusa, quadrat 10.																			
quaurat 10.	. 128	0-15	0.0	12.2	36.8	44.9	5.1	1.9	3.4	0.65	1.46	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.003	0.0	1.0	0.035	84.2
	129	15-40	0.4	9.7	29.2	49.2	7.3	4.5	5.8	0.01	3.85	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.004	0.0	2.75	0.03	51.2
	130	40-55	0.0	0.6	25.2	64.5	7.2	2.4	0.76	0.04	0.57	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.004	0.0	1.0	0.025	53.2

Within the upstream part of the main channel of Wadi Hagul, two community types may be recognized. The first is dominated by Zilla spinosa, and is well developed on elevated terraces of mixed deposits, see (PL. IV, A). The second is dominated by Launaea spinosa and represents a further stage in the building up of the wadi bed: the floor deposits are deeper and include a greater proportion of soft deposits admixed with the coarse rock detritus. The following are two stands representing the two types respectively:

Zilla spinosa	5. fr.	Scrophularia deserti	2. g.
Zygophyllum coccineum	4.fr.	Crotalaria aegyptiaca	1. g.
Launaea spinosa	3. fl.	Trichodesma africanum	1. d.
Artemisia judaica	3. g.	Lycium arabicum	1. g.
Fagonia mollis	2.±g.	Asteriscus graveolens	1.fr.
Echinops spinosissimus	2. g.	Pennisetum dichotomum	1. fl.
Gymnocarpos decandrum	2. d.	Farsetia aegyptiaca	1. g.
Iphiona mucronata	2. g.	Pulicaria undulata	+. fl.
Pityranthus tortuosus	2.fr.	Zygophyllum decumbens	+. g.
(25.11.1960	, total pla	ant cover = 10-20 %)	
Launaea spinosa	5. fl.	Iphiona mucronata	3. g.
Zygophyllum coccineum		Cleome droserifolia	2. g.
Zilla spinosa		Zygophyllum decumbens	2. g.
Pityranthus tortuosus		Echinops galalensis	1. g.
Artemisia judaica		Lavandula stricta	1. g.
Crotalaria aegyptiaca	2. g.	Reaumuria hirtella	+. fr.
Pennisetum dichotomum	-	Farsetia aegyptiaca	+. d.
Lycium arabicum			1 1
Lycium diableam	2. d.	Gymnocarpos decandrum	+. a.

(25.11.1960, total plant cover = 15-25%)

Further eastwards (downstream) this community type includes individuals of the following shrubs: Acacia raddiana, Tamarix mannifera and Retama raetam.

# (b) The Middle Sector:

In this part we notice the appearance of Leptadenia pyrotechnica a plant which is common further eastward, but very rarely found westward. The vegetation of the channels of Wadi Hagul and its main tributaries comprise three community types. The first is dominated by Haloxylon

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salicornicum and occupies the gravel beds that form the raised terraces. The second community type is dominated by Launaea spinosa and Leptadenia pyrotechnica and occupies the water ways, that is, the areas that are flooded by the occasional torrents. The third type is represented by scattered patches of Tamarix aphylla occupying relics of terraces built of soft deposits (silt). There are few trees of good size but it is mostly represented by patched bushy growth. The following are records of representative stands of these three community type:

# 1. Stand representing the Haloxylon salicornicum community:

Haloxylon salicornicum	5.fr.	Cleome droserifolia	2. g.
Artemisia judaica	4.fr.	Crotalaria aegyptiaca	2. g.
Launaea spinosa	3. g.	Lavandula stricta	1. fl.
Zilla spinosa	3. d.	Gymnocarpos decandrum	
Zygophyllum coccineum	3. g.	Fagonia bruguieri	+. g.
Fagonia mollis	2. g.		

(25.11.1960, total plant cover = 10-20 %)

# 2. Stand representing Launaea spinosa and Leptadenia pyrotechnica community:

Leptadenia pyrotechnica 5. g.	Iphiona mucronata 2. g.
Launaea spinosa 5. g.	Crotalaria aegyptiaca 2. g.
Artemisia judaica 4. g.	Cleome droserifolia 2. g.
Retama raetam 3. g.	Lycium arabicum 2. g.
Zilla spinosa 3.±g.	Lavandula stricta 1. g.
Haloxylon salicornicum 3. g.	Pityranthus tortuosus 1. g.
Fagonia mollis 3. g.	

(25.11.1960, total plant cover = 10-20 %)

# 3. Stand representing Tamarix aphylla community:

Tamarix aphylla 5. g.	Haloxylon salicornicum 2.±g.
Artemisia judaica 4. g.	Crotalaria aegyptiaca 2. g.
Zygophyllum coccineum 3.±g.	Iphiona mucronata 1. g.
Zilla spinosa 3.±g.	Gymnocarpos decandrum 1.s.

(25.11.1960, total plant cover = 15-25%)

# (c) The Downstream Sector:

In this part the wadi cuts across the coastal gravel beds. Though its channel is here wide, yet the actual course of the ephemeral streams is ill defined. It obviously changes its course on the different occasions. The result of this is a reticulum of thin, branching, and coalescing water courses. The meshes of this reticulum are patches of raised gravel isles. All are included within the wide channel bounded on both sides by the gravel beds of the coastal plain.

In this sector the wadi receives a number of short runnels from both sides. These are usually lined with sand in the form of continuous sheets or mounds around the plant growth.

The vegetation of the main wadi is predominantly a Haloxylon salicornicum community with individuals of Retama reatam and Launaea spinosa within the water courses. The vegetation of the affluent runnels is mainly a grassland type: Panicum turgidum and/or Pennisetum dichotomum. In one of these runnels on the north side of the wadi, c. 7 kilometers from the shore, the plant cover is dominated by Retama raetam together with a grassland type of vegetation, see (PL. IV, B).

Further downstream the wadi meets the littoral salt marsh vegetation.

### 3.3 WADI EL-BADA

Wadi El-Bada drainage system may be divided into three parts. The first is that part which occupies the valley in between the Gebel Akheider ridge and Gebel Kahaliya ridge. In this part it receives many affluents draining the slopes of these two ridges. The second is the part of the wadi cutting across the gravel formation of the coastal plain, where it has a very wide trunk and receives a few short runnels draining the plain. The third part is the downstream section of the wadi which includes its deltaic formation.

# (a) The Inland Part:

The vegetation of the inland part of wadi El-Bada varies in relation to the nature of the bottom sediments and the distance from the channel Bulletin, t. XXXV.

which contains the water flow. There are relic patches of the *Acacia raddiana* scrubland which is one of the natural climax vegetational types. These patches, comprising one or a few individuals, are rare but may be found in the wadi and its main affluents.

Within the trunks of the wadi and its main affluents, we may recognise two most common community types. One is dominated by *Haloxylon salicornicum* (Pl. V, A) and the other dominated by *Leptadenia pyrotechnica* (Pl. V, B). The former covers extensive stretches of ground on the gravel terraces, the latter is mostly confined to the silt fringes of the main channels and usually cover discontinuous strips.

For the floristic composition of representative stands reference is made to Table 6. It will be noted that the main difference between the two communities is primarily in dominance. Leptadenia is either rare or absent on the coarse gravel terraces; when present it is represented by depauperate individuals. On the silt strips that fringe the terraces Leptadenia is, though often grazed and destroyed, represented by bushes reaching more than two meter high, (Pl. V, B). Pennisetum dichotomum, Iphiona mucronata, Launaea spinosa and Zilla spinosa are common associates in both communities.

In a few localities, especially in the main affluents, there are representatives of a community dominated by Retama raetam. Associate plants include Iphiona mucronata, Pityranthus tortuosus, Launaea spinosa and Acacia raddiana. It is a community similar in physiognomy to that of Leptadenia. The latter is mostly confined to silty ground (fine alluvial material), the Retama community is mostly confined to sandy ground.

# (b) The Coastal Plain Part:

The floor of this part of the wadi is mostly covered with gravel admixed with coarse sand. In certain patches the floor is covered with silt and fine sand. In general, Haloxylon salicornicum is obviously the dominant plant. On the local silty patches, Lycium arabicum and Ephedra alata, are very abundant and may be locally dominant. The former is usually on the inland side of this part of the wadi, whereas the Ephedra patches are usually on the transition between the Haloxylon dominated part

TABLE 6

Floristic composition of three stands representing the *Haloxylon*-community and two stands representing *Leptadenia*-community.

Community type	Haloxy	lon salicor	nicum	Lepta pyrote	denia chnica
Stand No.	1	2	3	1	2
Date	9.6.60	8.6.60	9.6.60	9.6.60	9.6.60
Total plant cover	10-20 %	10 %	20 %	2-5 %	5-10 %
Perennials					
Haloxylon salicornicum	5.g.	5.d.	5.d.	_	2.d.
Leptadenia pyrotechnica			1.g.	5.g.	5.g.
Pennisetum dichotomum .	3.d.	2.g.	1.d.	+.d.	2.d.
Iphiona mucronata	3.g.	3.g.	_	1.g.	3.g.
Launaea spinosa	3.g.	2.g.		3.g.	3.g.
Zilla spinosa	2.g.	2.d.	2.d.	1.d.	
Panicum turgidum	3.d.	3.g.	2.d.	_	_
Lycium arabicum		4.g.	-	2.g.	2.g.
Artemisia judaica	1.g.		_	+.g.	2.g.
Lavandula stricta	+.g.			2.g.	1.g.
Lasiurus hirsutus		_	_	+.g.	1.g.
Retama raetam	2.g.	_			3.g.
Echinops galalensis	2.g.	_			2.g.
Fagonia mollis	+.g.	-			2.d.
Pityranthus tortuosus	1.g.	_	-	1.g.	
Pulicaria crispa		1.g.	_	+.g.	- 11
Heliotropium undulatum		+.g.			+.g.
Erodium glaucophyllum	+.g.	_			1.d.
Ephedra alata	2				1.0.
Linaria aegyptiaca	3.g.		-		
Gypsophila capillaris	3.g.	-	-		- T - E
Gymnocarpos decandrum	2.g.	_		-	
Centaurea aegyptiaca	2.g.				
Paronychia desertorum	2.g.	_			
Zygophyllum decumbens .	2.g.				
Convolvulus hystrix  Tamarix amplexicaulis		2.g. 2.g.			
Zygophyllum coccineum	1.s.	2.6.			_
Acacia raddiana	1.00	1.g.	_		
Achillea fragrantissima		7.6.		+.g.	
Farsetia aegyptiaca				+.g.	
Fagonia bruguieri		_	-	+.g.	
Crotalaria aegyptiaca				-0.	3.g.
Nitraria retusa		+.g.	_	_	
Ephemerals					
Asphodelus tenuifolius	4.d.		_	_	
Filago spathulata	3.d.		_	_	_
Lotus arabicus	1.g.			_	
Plantago ovata	+.d.		_		
Matthiola livida	+.g.	-			
Erodium laciniatum	1.g.				1

and the seaward part of the wadi. The following is a representative stand:

Haloxylon salicornicum	5. g.	Retama raetam	1. g.
Ephedra alata	4. s.	Acacia raddiana	1. g.
Lycium arabicum	4. g.	Aerva persica	+. g.
Panicum turgidum	3.d.	Gymnocarpos decandrum	+. g.
Launaea spinosa	2. g.	Convolvulus hystrix	+. g.
Farsetia aegyptiaca	2. g.	Zygophyllum album	+. g.
(18.12.1960,	total pla	int cover = 10-15 %)	

Within this part, the wadi receives a number of short and shallow runnels cutting across the gravel plain. Some of these runnels are lined with sand, others are devoid of such floor cover. The former type is the habitat of a grassland community type dominated by Panicum turgidum, the latter is the habitat of a community dominated by Haloxylon salicornicum.

# (c) The Deltaic Part:

In this part the ecological conditions range from the inland desert habitat to the maritime salt marsh habitat. On the inland desert side *Haloxylon salicornicum* community is the most abundant vegetational type. The salt marsh vegetation comprises a number of community types that are usually arranged in a zonal pattern.

The transition between these two ecological systems is represented by a mixed community that includes *Haloxylon salicornicum*, *Nitraria retusa*, *Suaeda vermiculata* and *Zygophyllum album*. This transitional vegetation is followed by the salt marsh vegetation which is distinguished by the absence of *Haloxylon salicornicum*.

The salt marsh vegetation includes community types that are strictly littoral and others that may be referred to as the dry (or the inland) salt marsh. The littoral communities include two main types: the Juncus arabicus community which fringes the drainage creeks, and the Halocnemon strobilaceum community which fringes the littoral front. Where the drainage creeks are large and contain free water a reed swamps type dominated by Phragmites communis is usually present.

The inland marsh vegetation includes communities dominated by Limonium pruinosum, Zygophyllum album, Suaeda vermiculata or Nitraria retusa. These communities are closely related in their floristic composition but they are distinguished on basis of the relative abundance of the species especially the dominants. Reference will be made later on to the various characters and ecological relationships of these communities.

### 3.4 WADI EL-GHWEIBBA

Considering the habitat types of this wadi we may recognize three main parts comparable to those of Wadi El-Bada:

- (a) the inland part which occupies the valley in between the Akheider ridge and Gebel Galala B;
  - (b) the middle part which cuts across the coastal plain; and
- (c) the littoral part which includes the deltaic formation of the wadi and its salt marshes.

# (a) The Inland Part:

The bed of the wadi is here covered with gravels and coarse sand. In certain places there are remnants of silt deposits in the form of island-like patches within the main trunk of the wadi, or in the form of narrow terraces on the sides of the main channel. Haloxylon salicornicum is dominant everywhere. On the silt patches and terraces there are relics of a vegetation type which may be referred to as the Tamarix aphylla forest, which is apparently the natural climax vegetation on the silt formation. On the terraces relics of the Tamarix forest include groups of trees that are obviously old and moribund, see (Pl. VI, A). Within the channel of the wadi there are few Tamarix aphylla trees, and several patches covered by ground growth of this species. This is a growth form resulting from repeated destruction by grazing and cutting; the plant fails to acquire its normal tree form and grows in the form of a huge mass of short branches sitting on the ground surface, see (Pl. VI, B). The space in between the Tamarix patches is covered by Haloxylon

community. Here is a representative stand of the plant growth on the bed of the trunk of the wadi:

Haloxylon salicornicum 5.±g.	Centaurea aegyptiaca 2. fr.
Tamarix aphylla 3. g.	Zygophyllum decumbens 2. g.
Cleome droserifolia 3. g.	Ochradenus baccatus 2. fr.
Artemisia judaica 3. fr.	Pulicaria crispa 2. fl.
Fagonia mollis 3. d.	Zilla spinosa 1.fr.
/0.0.1000	

(9.6.1960, total plant cover = 5-10%)

In this part the wadi receives several affluents draining the Akheider ridge to the north and the Galala B to the south. Some of these affluents are of considerable size and show ecological features and vegetational characteristics similar to those of the main wadi. The features of the vegetation of these affluents depend on:

- 1. the catchment area, that is, on the water resources; and
- 2. the texture and depth of the bed cover.

The main affluents, like the main trunk of the wadi, are the habitat of two community types: Haloxylon salicornicum-dominated, and Leptadenia pyrotechnica-dominated. The former is wide-spread, the latter is confined to the fringes of the water channels where discontinuous strips of silty terraces exist.

The main trunk of Wadi El-Ghweibba occupies a channel cutting along the wide valley that separates the mountain ridges on both sides. The affluent runnels that cut across the low ground of the wide valley and that are lined with sand, are the habitat of a community dominated by Artemisia judaica. The following is a representative stand (Wadi Morrir, Galala B.):

		·	,
Artemisia judaica	5. g.	Cleome droserifolia	2. g.
Launaea spinosa	3. g.	Pulicaria crispa	
Lavandula stricta	2. g.	Lycium arabicum	
Crotalaria aegyptiaca	2. g.	Achillea fragrantissima	
Pityranthus tortuosus	2. g.	Scrophularia deserti	
Iphiona mucronata	2. g.	Ochradenus baccatus	
Echinops galalensis	2. d.	Retama raetam	
Lindenbergia sinaica	2. g.	Gomphocarpus sinaicus	
Gymnocarpos decandrum	2. g.		

(17.12.1960, total plant cover = 5-10 %)

The affluents cutting across the limestone escarpment of Galala B are the habitats of a variety of communities, the most common of which is that dominated by *Cleome droserifolia*. The following is a representative stand (Wadi Noot, Galala B):

Cleome droserifolia	5. g.	Capparis spinosa	1. g.
Iphiona mucronata	3. g.	Ficus pseudosycomorus	1. g.
Artemisia judaica	3. g.	Centaurea aegyptiaca	1. g.
Pulicaria crispa	2. g.	Pityranthus tortuosus	1. g.
Echinops galalensis	2. g.	Acacia raddiana	1. g.
Zygophyllum decumbens	2. g.	Ochradenus baccatus	1. g.
Stachys aegyptiaca	2. g.	Lindenbergia sinaica	1. g.
Zilla spinosa	2. g.	Gymnocarpos decandrum	1. g.
Zygophyllum coccineum	2. g.	Lycium arabicum	1. g.
Haloxylon salicornicum	2. d.	Leptadenia pyrotechnica	1. g.
Launaea spinosa	2. g.	Phaeopappus scoparius	+. g.
Fagonia mollis	2. g.	Helianthemum kahiricum	+. g.
Lavandula stricta	2. g.	Varthemia montana	+. g.
Lavandula pubescens	2. g.	Heliotropium sp	+. g.
Achillea fragrantissima	1. g.	Salsola sp	+. g.
Fagonia bruguieri	1. g.		
0	U		

(17.12.1960, total plant cover = 10-20 %)

Certain parts of some of these affluents run down waterfalls where they produce pot-holes (locally known as gelt). The step-like precipices of the waterfalls are the typical habitat of a number of species notably Ficus pseudosycomorus and Capparis spinosa, see (PL. VII, A). At the foot and sides of the waterfall Limonium pruinosum, Gymnocarpos decandrum etc., are commonly found.

In some of the affluents draining the Akheider ridge, the floor is lined with sand and silt mixed with fine rock detritus. This is the habitat of a grassland type of community which is here represented by the following stand:

Pennisetum dichotomum	5. fr.	Haloxylon salicornicum	3. fr.
Panicum turgidum	5. fr.	Lasiurus hirsutus	3. fl.
Fagonia mollis	4.±g.	Leptadenia pyrotechnica	2. g.
Zilla spinosa	3. g.	Zygophyllum coccineum	1. fr.
Pulicaria crispa	3. fl.	Crotalaria aegyptiaca	1. g.
Lavandula stricta	3. fl.	Launaea nudicaulis	+. d.
Launaea spinosa	3. fl.	Convolvulus hystrix	+. fl.

(9.6.1960, total plant cover = 10 %)

# (b) The Coastal Plain Part:

This is the part cutting across the coastal plain and extending from the feet of the hills to the littoral salt marsh. The wadi is here inhabited by Haloxylon salicornicum community. As we pass towards the downstream side of this part of the wadi, the sandy deposits increase and the mounds built around the Haloxylon salicornicum increase in area and height. The total area covered by the plant growth increases from 5 % on the inland side to 20 % on the downstream side. The composition of the vegetation also changes gradually as individuals of Nitraria retusa and Tamarix mannifera appear. The vegetation of this part is very much similar to the comparable part of Wadi El-Bada.

In this part the wadi receives numerous short branches that are shallow runnels cutting across the coastal gravel plain. Two types of habitat may be distinguished: the runnels lined with sand and those devoid of such sandy cover. The latter is the habitat of a Haloxylon salicornicum community, the former is the habitat of a grassland type represented by the following stand, see (Pl. VII, B):

Panicum turgidum	5. d.	Zygophyllum coccineum	1. g.
Acacia raddiana	4. g.	Zilla spinosa	
Pityranthus tortuosus	2. g.	Launaea nudicaulis	
Launaea spinosa	1. fl.	Aerva persica	
Zygophyllum decumbens		Daemia cordata	

(25.12.1959, total plant cover = 10 %)

The Suez-Hurghada Road cuts the wadi near the end of its coastal part. It is noticeable that on both sides of the road there is an abundance of *Tephrosia apollinea*. It extends to the inland side of the wadi much more than to the seaward side.

It may be noted here that there are two species of *Tamarix* in Wadi El-Ghweibba, namely: *Tamarix aphylla* and *T. mannifera*. The former is common in the inland part of the wadi and the latter is a very abundant plant in the littoral part. In the coastal part of the wadi one may notice the gradual change from one species to the other. Midway they are mixed, see stand 1, Table 7.

plant cover within the deltaic part of Wadi El-the seaward side, others are transitional. (17. s zonal variation i Floristic composition of ten stands representing the Ghweibba. Stand 1 is at the inland side of the 12.1960).

Stands	1	67	ಣ	77	2	9	7	00	6	10
Total plant cover %	20-30	25-40	30-40	30-50	30-50	40-60	20-60	50-70	50-70	08-09
Haloxylon salicornicum Tamarix aphylla Tamarix mannifera. Hyoscyamus muticus. Acacia raddiana. Pulicaria crispa. Aerva persica. Crotalaria aegyptiaca. Zygophyllum coccincum. Calotropis procera. Zygophyllum album. Suaeda vermiculata. Zygophyllum decumbens Nitraria retusa. Limonium pruinosum. Halocnemon strobilaceum. Arthrocnemon glaucum. Juncus arabicus.	0mma-++	7000	8   1-10   1-1	+   -			4		6	

# (c) The Deltaic Part:

In its littoral part, Wadi El-Ghweibba stretches into a wide deltaic formation. Near the shore this formation is traversed by a tidal creek. The vegetation is organized into a zonal pattern around this creek. The zonal variation in the plant cover is represented by the ten stands of Table 7. Stand 1 represents the transition between the coastal plain part and the deltaic part. Stand 10 represents the reedswamp vegetation of the creek. The other stands represent the gradual change from one end to the other. It will be noticed that Haloxylon salicornicum decreases seaward, so does Tamarix aphylla. T. mannifera which is rarely found in the inland section of the wadi, gradually increases in preponderance and in places it forms dense thickets that are represented by stands 2, 3 and 4 of Table 7. Its plant cover ranges from 20-40 %. Further seaward it is an abundant species with a cover ranging from 10-15 %. Stand 5 represents a community which is wide-spread, namely the Nitraria retusa community. Stands 6 and 7 represent a zone dominated by Halocnemon strobilaceum (cover = 40-50 %), see (PL. VIII, A). Stands 8 and 9 represent a zone, further seaward, dominated by Arthrocnemon glaucum (cover = 30-50%). The distribution of Phragmites communis and Juncus arabicus is confined to the creek and its fringes, see (Pl. VIII, B)

### 3.5 THE LITTORAL PLAIN

The littoral plain is the coastal strip which is under the direct or indirect influence of the saline water of the sea. The land under the direct influence of the sea water is subject to inundation by high tide or during the strong storms. The indirect influence of the sea means the presence of a shallow saline-water table. The littoral plain defined as such, is the habitat of dry salt marsh. It comprises the deltaic parts of the drainage systems, to which reference has already been made, and the ground in between these deltaic parts.

The most abundant dry salt marsh community types are:

Halocnemon strobilaceum community; Zygophyllum album community; Nitraria retusa community.

Less common are the following types:

Limonium pruinosum community;

Suaeda vermiculata community.

Rare community types in this part of the Red Sea coast are those dominated by Limonium axillare and Arthrochemon glaucum.

# 3.51 The Halocnemon strobilaceum community:

Table 8 gives the floristic analysis of twenty quadrats, each  $20 \times 20$  m., set within a stand of the *Halochemon strobilaceum* community.

TABLE 8

Floristic analysis of twenty quadrats, each  $20 \times 20$  m. set within a stand of *Halocnemon strobilaceum* community, littoral plain. For each species are given two figures: the first is the number of individuals and the second is the area in sq.m. covered by the species, x = less than one sq.m. (15.4.1960).

O dwat			Species		
Quadrat No.	Halocnemon strobilaceum	Zygophyllum album	Limonium pruinosum	Zygophyllum coccineum	Nitraria retusa
1	20-18.5	1-x	2-x		1-x
2	14-7	Shadi-hadi		-	
3	15-12.5				
4	12-8	4-x	1-x		
5	49-12.5	2-x			-
6	13-3.5	16-x	1-x		-
7	24-3.5	64-1	2-x	_	_
. 8	12-7	21-x	_		_
9	26-25	86-1	1-x	6-x	
10	37-4.5	201-x			
11	2-x		_		_
12	16-8.5	_	-		
13	26-33.7				_
14	18-7.4	2-x		p.many	
15	16-7.7		_	1-x	
16	19-2.5	18-x		_	
17	17-4.5	47-x	2-1		
18	13-2.9	60-x	_	1-x	_
19	40-2.9	29-x		1-x	_
20	37-4.1	34-x		_	-
Fr.	100	70	30	20	5

Halocnemon strobilaceum is not only the most frequent species (frequency = 100%), but also the species with the greatest cover in all the quadrats. The total cover of this dominant species ranges from 3 to 34 sq.m. per quadrat. Zygophyllum album is a very abundant species (frequency = 70%); it is represented by numerous but small individuals. The number of individuals per quadrat ranges from zero to 200 but the total area covered does not exceed 1.5 sq.m./quadrat. Associated species include Limonium pruinosum and Nitraria retusa. Zygophyllum coccineum is here an accidental plant, it belongs to the desert plain flora and not to the salt marsh.

Table 9 gives the floristic composition of five stands (1-5) representing this community type. Limonium pruinosum and Zygophyllum album are the common associated especially on the inland boundaries of the Halocnemon strobilaceum zone. On the seaward side, Halocnemon strobilaceum usually forms pure stands that sometimes cover littoral sand hillocks or longitudinal bars, see (Pl. IX, A).

# 3.52 The Zygophyllum album community:

Table 10 shows the floristic analysis of a twenty quadrats, each  $20 \times 20$  sq.m., laid within a stand of Zygophyllum album community. Zygophyllum album is the most common species (frequency = 100 %). It is also the most abundant: the number of individuals per quadrat ranges from 1 to 73, and the area covered reaches 11 sq.m. per quadrat. This set of quadrats represents an almost pure stand of Zygophyllum album. Nitraria retusa is represented by a single individual in quadrat No. 12 and Halocnemon strobilaceum is similarly represented in quadrat No. 1.

Table 9 gives the floristic composition of five stands (6-10) representing this community type as found in the studied area. The community very often forms pure stands. Common associates include *Nitraria retusa* and *Suaeda vermiculata*. Other associates are accidentals rather than characteristics.

Floristic composition of stands representing the community types of the littoral salt marsh. For each species the first figure is an abundance estimate according to a slightly modified Domin scale (+ - 10), the second figure indicates the aspect of growth. Arth. = Arthrochemon, Lim. ax. = Limonium axillare.

Species		Halocne	emon strob	oilaceum			Zygoj	phyllum a	album			Ni	itraria retu	sa		L	imonium	pruinosui	m		Suae	eda vermic	ulata		Arth.	glaucum	Lim. ax.
Distance south of Suez (km.)	16-17.5	27	27-28	37	37	27	27-28	30	37	37	16-17.5	27	27-28	30	51	27-28	30	43-44	44	37	37	37	37	37	33-35	18-19	18
Total plant cover %	20-30	20	10-20	30	40	10-20	10-20	20	20-30	30-40	25	20	20	15	15	20	10-20	10-20	10	30	20-30	30-40	20-30	30	30	20-30	20-30
Stand No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
Halocnemon strobilaceum	6 g	5 g	5 g	6 g	6 g	+g				_			3 g	_	_	3 g		3 g		3 g				3 g	4 g	4 g	_
Zygophyllum album Nitraria retusa		4 g	1 g	_	2 g 2 g	5 g + g	5 g	5 g 4 g	6 g 3 g	6 g	6 g	4 g 5 g	4 g 5 g	4 g 5 g	1 g 5 g	4 g	3 g	1 g	4 g	2 g 3 g	4 g 3 g	4 g	3 g 3 g	2 g 3 g	2 g	+ g -	1 g 4 g
Limonium pruinosum Suaeda vermiculata	2 g	3 g	_		3 g 2 g	_	3 g 2 g	2 g	1 g 4 g	3 g		_	3 g	_		5 g	5 g	5 g	5 g 3 g	2 g 5 g	3 g 6 g	6 g	3 g 6 g	2 g 6 g	-	hanner	
Arthrocnemon glaucum Limonium axillare			_	_	2 g				_		made and a second secon	_	_		_	_		3 g		_		_	_		6 g	6 g	6 g
Cressa cretica					2 g							_	3 g			3 g		4 g		4 g	-		4 g	3 g		_	_
Alhagi maurorum Tamarix mannifera	1 g			_		_	+g					3 g	4 g		2 g	4 g	3 g	_			_		_		_	_	_
Salsola villosaZygophyllum coccineum	1 g	 +g				_	1 g	- +g	_	_		_	_		_		_	_		_	- +g					_	 +g
Taverniera aegyptiaca Launaea spinosa	_			_		_	1 g	2 g			And the second s						_		_	_					_		_
Convulvulus lanatus	_		_				+ g	4 g	_	_						-	+ g 3 g				-			_	_		_
Retama raetam Panicum turgidum	_							2 g 2 g				_	_		_			_		_				_			_
Calligonum comosum  Haloxylon salicornicum	_					_		2 g		2 g	2 g		+ g	-	2 g	_	_	_			_	- +d		_			_
Ochradenus baccatus Pithyranthus tortuosus			_		_					_	_	_	_	+ g		_	2 g		_			_	_	_	_	_	_
Lasiurus hirsutus				_					-		-		_		_		+ g	_		_	_	_	_				_
Zilla spinosa		_	1=		_											_	=			_	_	+g +g		_			-
Farsetia aegyptiaca	_				-	_										_	-	-			_	+g	_			-	

### TABLE 10

Floristic analysis of twenty quadrats, each  $20 \times 20$  m., laid within a stand of *Zygophyllum album* community, littoral plain. For each species are given two figures: the first figure = number of individuals and the second figure = area in sq.m. covered by the species, x = area less than one sq.m., (15. 4.1960).

Quadrat No.	Zygophyllum album	Nitraria retusa	Halocnemon strobilaceum
1	40-2.5	_	1-x
2	33-4.4	_	-
3	1-x		
4	9-11	_	_
5	49-5		norman.
6	59-9		_
3 4 5 6 7 8	3-x	_	
8	7-3.5	_	M
9	9-10		
10	16-5.5	_	
11	73-11	_	_
12	49-4.5	1-x	_
13	17-5.5		The state of the s
14	30-6		_
15	5-3.5	_	
16	13-2	_	Parameterial
17	32-2.7	BARFFERREN	
18	24-8		_
19	11-11	_	
20	1-1	_	of the same
Fr.	100	5	5

# 3.53 The Nitraria retusa community:

Table 11 gives the floristic analysis of twenty quadrats  $(20 \times 20 \text{ m.})$  laid within a stand of *Nitraria retusa* community. *Nitraria retusa* is present in 50% of the quadrats and is usually represented by a small number of individuals (1-3), but the individuals are often of considerable size, e.g. in quadrat No. 3 there is one individual patch covering 60 sq.m. *Zygophyllum album* is present in 40% of the quadrats. The number of individuals per quadrat ranges from zero to 12 and the area reaches

6 sq.m. per quadrat. Limonium pruinosum is also a common associate, frequency = 35%. Alhagi maurorum (frequency = 25%) is represented by a few depauperate individuals.

### TABLE 11

Floristic analysis of twenty quadrats, each  $20 \times 20$  m., set within a stand of *Nitraria retusa* community, littoral plain. For each species are given two figures: the first is the number of individuals and the second is the area in sq.m. covered by the species, x = less than one sq.m., (15.4.1960).

Quadrat	Species											
No.	Nitraria retusa	Zygophyllum album	Limonium pruinosum	Alhagi maurorum								
1	1-13	land district the state of the										
1 2 3	1-29		1-x	Name (Ip) (III)								
3	1-60		4-1									
4		2-5	4-4.5	-								
5		5-6	3-1	1-x								
6	_	-	1-4									
7	1-9			-								
8	1-1.5			-								
9	1-1.5	1-1.5		-								
10	2-15											
11	3-11	3-1										
12	2-2.5											
13	2-52	9-1	antenna	_								
14	-	11-1.5	3-1.5	1-x								
15 16		12-x	1-2	1-x								
10		1-x		6-x								
17 18	1-2	1-1	M-Marina,	5-x								
19												
20	3-2		Monthless of the Control of the Cont	-								
20	_			A								
Fr.	60	45	35	25								

Table 9 gives the floristic composition of five stands (11-15) of this community type. Zygophyllum album is the most closely associated species. The structure of the Nitraria community differs from that of the previously mentioned two types. The plant growth is here built of

separate patches of Nitraria covering hummocks that rise to 100-150 cm. above the general level of the ground. Nitraria retusa thus constitutes a special layer of the plant growth, the other species that may be included in this layer is Tamarix mannifera. Associate plants may grow within the spaces in between the Nitraria hummocks, forming a second low layer of the vegetation.

Table 12 gives the analyses of soil samples collected from the Nitraria hummocks. The samples represent two profiles across sandy hummocks built around Nitraria growth. The two profiles, though representing two localities 15 km. apart, show comparable features especially with regard to the distribution of the total soluble salts in the profile. There is a surface accumulation of soluble salts (0-25 cm. depth), followed by a layer of decreasing salt content, then an invermediate saline hard pan followed by layers of reduced salt content. In both profiles the surface salt-rich layer has a higher chloride content than the soluble sulphate content. In the first profile the intermediate hard-pan layer is rich in chloride content and low in soluble sulphate content. The comparable pan of the second profile (samples 85) has a much higher soluble sulphate content (3%) than the cloride content (0.14%).

### 3.54 Other Communities:

The two communities dominated by Limonium pruinosum (stands 16-19, Table 9) and Suaeda vermiculata (stands 20-24, Table 9) are ecologically and floristically closely associated with the Zygophyllum album community. In the two communities the characteristic associates are Zygophyllum album and Nitraria retusa. All the three communities inhabit the same zone of vegetation which lies in between the Halocnemon strobilaceum littoral zone and the Nitraria retusa inland zone of dry salt marsh. Zygophyllum album is however better capable of building up sand mounds.

The Arthrocnemon glaucum community (stands 25-26, Table 9) is, in the area described in this part, closely associated with the Halocnemon strobilaceum community. Ecologically they are present within the littoral zone following the shore line directly. The Arthrocnemon glaucum community, as will be shown in later studies, replaces the Halocnemon

strobilaceum community in the southern part of the Red Sea coast. The Limonium axillare community, (stand 27, Table 9), which is here very rare, is a most common community type within the southern parts of the Red Sea coast. It is here found in one locality within the small peninsula of Ras Adabiya (15 km. south of Suez).

### 3.6 AIN EL-SOKHNA AREA

# 3.61 Sketch map:

At the northeast foot of Galala B (Khashm El-Galala) is a spring of warm brackish water. The water drains toward the shore line where it forms a pool of warm water which gives the area its name and which attracts many visitors and makes the area a popular seaside resort.

Fig. 5 is a sketch map of the vegetational cover of the Ain El-Sokhna area. The central section of the area is covered by the green growth of *Juncus arabicus* which forms a mat of pure growth around the source of the spring (= Ain), along the path of the drainage towards the sea, and around its spreading area near the seashore. To the south of the Ain there are a series of circular areas covered by *Juncus* and indicate, perhaps, subsidiary springs, see (Pl. IX, B).

Tamarix mannifera surrounds the Juncus area and invades its fringes. Its growth varies from isolated bushes to dense thickets. The expanse of the area to the south of the Juncus sections, is a saline ground with scattered bushes of abundant Nitraria retusa and scarce Tamarix mannifera, with thin undergrowth of Juncus arabicus. To the north are also scattered Nitraria retusa bushes with abundant Limonium pruinosum and its associates. Locally Arthrochemon glaucum dominates the plant cover.

At the shore line there is a sandy bar covered with *Juncus arabicus* and *Tamarix mannifera*. On this bar there are a few clumps of date palm growth (*Phoenix dactylifera*).

# 3.62 A sample area:

A sample area of 14000 sq.m.  $(140 \times 100 \text{ m.})$  was divided into 35 quadrats each  $20 \times 20 \text{ m.}$  The plant growth was mapped on chart quadrats. Table 13 gives the number of individuals and the total area

Table 12

Analyses of soil samples collected from the various stands of Nitraria retusa community type.

	Sample	Depth		F	Particle siz	ze mm (%	<b>%</b> )			Wat	% oven dry weight.								
Remarks	No.	(cm)	> 2	0.5-2	0.2-0.5	0.1-0.2	0.07-0.1	< 0.07	Total	Cl	SO <sub>4</sub>	NO <sub>3</sub>	PO4	CO <sub>3</sub>	Fe	Mg	Loss ignition	Organic C	HCl soluble
Hummock of Nitraria retusa, locality 17. km. south of Suez, 25.12.1959.																`			
Frail + leaf remains	5	0- 5	0.0	7.5	21.7	48.0	15.45	7.3	14.29	9.6	0.29	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.0025	0.0	9.9	0.0	51.6
Same as above	6	5- 25	0.38	12.0	26.57	45.4	14.25	1.32	13.79	5.25	2.6	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.0025	0.0	10.5	0.0	39.3
Clay, white spots	7	25- 45	0.25	15.7	24.6	48.0	10.7	0.5	5.38	1.8	1.2	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.002	0.0	7.1	0.28	61.3
White hard pan	8	45- 55	1.1	15.7	27.5	44.1	11.1	0.45	2.85	0.02	1.4	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.002	0.0	11.6	0.012	47.3
Yellow sand, roots	9	55- 70	0.2	12.0	28.7	45.4	12.95	0.7	2.28	0.23	1.2	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.0025	0.0	5.7	0.0	32.3
White saline hard pan	2	70- 75	0.0	19.89	27.6	50.4	1.6	0.47	13.09	5.65	0.062	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.002	0.0	9.12	0.0	56.4
Yellow coarse sand, roots	3	75-115	0.24	6.12	29.88	55.99	7.26	0.39	1.68	0.03	0.29	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.002	0.0	5.29	0.49	36.91
Hummock of Nitraria retusa, locality 27 km. south of Suez, 15.4.1960.			_																
Sand+leaf remains	82	0- 20	0.5	16.4	39.8	36.2	4.3	2.8	7.5	3.75	0.9	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.0025	0.0	7.25	0.0	59.4
White hard pan	83	20- 25	1.2	19.2	31.2	38.7	3.95	5.55	17.7	9.4	1.72	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.0025	0.0	5.25	0.0	66.9
Red wet sand	84	25- 50	0.8	33.5	30.9	25.9	4.5	4.3	4.17	0.73	2.29	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.002	0.0	7.5	0.0	57.9
Hard pan	85-	50- 65	0.0	0.0	38.75	43.65	7.6	9.7	7.45	0.14	3.02	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.0025	0.0	3.0	0.0	45.7
Red wet sand	86	65- 80	0.0	0.0	29.3	55.3	6.8	8.5	4.45	0.085	1.2	0.011	0.0	0.0	0.0025	0.0	6.75	0.29	50.2

TABLE 13

Analysis of 35 quadrats, each 20 × 20 m., set within a sample area of Ain El-Sokhna locality. For each species the number of individuals and the area they cover (sq.m.) in each quadrat are given, (16.12.1960).

	Species														
Quadrat	Juncus	Juncus	Tamarix	Arthroc-	Zygo-	NI's									
No.	arabicus	arabicus	manni-	nemon	phyllum	Nitraria									
	(green)	(dead)	fera	glaucum	album	retusa									
1	12-37														
2	1-321		2-7												
3	1-021	1-299	9-63												
4		1-353	9-47		4-2										
5	5-58	1-296	3-46		1-3										
6	10-153	1-247		transferred											
7	2-360	1 2 4 7	2-24	1-16	-										
8	7-126	Shinkharani	4-64	3-4	Minima	n-seiren									
9	4-106	1-206	2-28	2-5											
10	2-9	1-385		***************************************		1-6									
11	3-93														
12	5-11		2-18		_										
13	1-80	_		2-1.5											
14	4-88		1-9	14-41		1-4									
15	1-72	_	1-4	5-12	1-0.5										
16		1-396	1-4												
17	3-100	1-288	1-11												
18	_	1-380	1-20												
19		1-27,2	1-16	14-96											
20	_	1-328	1-20	7-48	2-3.5	_									
21	6-25	1-336	2-38												
22	_	1-324	5-76												
23		1-344	3-56	_											
24		1-342	2-29	6-30											
25	_	4.001	2-40	21-53.5	_										
26	_	1-384	1-16												
27	_	1-400	4 /	405		1									
28		1-392	1-4	1-3.5											
29		1-314	3-82	2-3	_	- Aprillation									
30 31		1-400		13-177.5											
				_	d-11-46	Acomposition of									
32 33		1-400	1-20	2-2											
34		1-378	1-20	24-30											
35		1	1-4												
9.9		tinantia.	-	24-193											

they cover in each quadrat. For *Juncus arabicus* we differentiate between the green growth and the dead tussocks that bear no green shoots.

Quadrats 1-15 inclusive represent an area dominated by Juncus arabicus. The number of individual tussocks ranges from 1 to 12 and the area covered ranges from 9 to 394 sq.m. per quadrat. There is no correlation between the number of individuals and the cover. Quadrats 16-33 inclusive, like a few of the previous group, represent an area that was once dominated by Juncus arabicus which is now dead. The dead tussocks cover areas that reach 100% of the area of certain quadrats, e.g., quadrats 27, 31 and 32, see (Pl. IX, B). Quadrats 34 and 35 are devoide of Juncus growth and represent an area where Arthrochemon glaucum dominates.

Tamarix mannifera is well represented in this area. It is present in 25 quadrats (frequency = 71 %). The number of individuals, when present, ranges from 1 to 9, and the total area covered ranges from 4 to 82 sq.m. per quadrat.

Arthrochemon glaueum is present in 16 quadrats (frequency = 46%), the number of its individuals ranges from 1 to 24, and its total cover ranges from 2 to 193 sq.m. per quadrat. In certain quadrats (25, 30, 34 and 35) it is the dominant plant.

Zygophyllum album and Nitraria retusa, which are abundant species within the Ain El-Sokhna area, are only scarcely found within this sample areas.

Fig. 6, represents 14 chart quadrats. Quadrats 3, 8, 13, 4, 9 and 14 represent areas of *Juncus* domination. Quadrats 18, 23, 28, 24 and 29 represent an area of dead *Juncus* with invading *Tamarix mannifera*, see (Pl. X, A). Quadrats 33 and 34 represent the fringe of the wet marsh of *Juncus* where *Arthrocnemon glaucum* dominates.

Table 14, gives the analyses of a series of soil samples representing a soil profile within an area dominated by *Juncus arabicus*. There is a surface layer of a salt crust (0-20 cm.), followed by a layer of black litter formed by the accumulation of remains of roots and rhizomes of *Juncus* (20-45 cm.). Then follows a thick bed of tidal mud with an intervening layer of coarse sand (sample 186).

Table 14

Analyses of soil samples collected from *Juncus arabicus* community type, Ain El-Sokhna area, 16.12.1960.

			Particle size mm (%)							Wa	% oven dry weight.								
Remarks	Sample No.	Depth (cm)	> 2	0.5-2	0.2-0.5	0.1-0.2	0.07-0.1	< 0.07	Total	Cl	$SO_{h}$	NO <sub>3</sub>	$PO_{h}$	CO <sub>3</sub>	Fe	Mg	Loss ignition	Organic C	HCl soluble
Tussock of Juncus arabicus.										+									
Raw organic matter + salty sand Cooked organic matter. White sand Brown sand White sand	183 184 185 186 187	0-20 20-45 45-55 55-75 75-90 (water table)	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0.0 	14.0 71.4 28.5 53.4	67.6 26.4 68.7 43.4	10.2 	8.2 0.9 0.8 0.8	76.76 25.78 1.04 3.0 1.3	40.28 9.9 0.36 0.98 0.33	4.12 3.7 0.41 1.24 0.5	0.066 0.011 0.033 0.033 0.011	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0.003 0.004 0.003 0.003 0.003	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	10.0 37.5 4.25 9.5 2.5	0.0 3.74 0.35 1.37 0.48	83.5 40.5 80.26 35.0 79.86

In the surface salt crust the total soluble salt content is 76.7%. This is mostly chlorides (40.28%) and only partly sulphates (4.12%). The nitrate content is relatively high (0.06%). The HCl soluble material is 83.5% but this is mostly water-soluble salts. The black layer represented by sample 184 is in fact a mixture of water-soluble salts (25.78%) and plant remains (37.5%).

The tidal mud bed represented by samples 185 and 187 is characterized by low soluble-salt content (1.04 and 1.3%) and a high HCl-soluble material (80%). The intervening band, sample 186, has a higher soluble salt content (3.0%) and a lower HCl-soluble material (35.0%).

### 3.7 Wadis Draining Eastern Galala B

The short wadis that drain the eastern scrap of Galala B may be classified into two main types. The first comprises the wadis that have no springs, and are characterized by a bed cover of coarse rock detritus. The second includes the wadis with brackish water springs and that are characterized by a bed cover of soft silt. The first type is characterized by an open scrubland vegetation with abundant Acacia raddiana (Pl. X, B). The second is the habitat of a community of Juncus arabicus, Imperata cylindrica, etc. (Pl. XI, A).

# 3.71 The Acacia raddiana type:

Two representative stands are studied in detail.

# Stand A:

This stand is a sample area  $(40 \times 50 \text{ m.})$  within a wadi cutting across the narrow coastal strip between the Galala B hills and the shore line, 61 km. south of Suez. The sample area is divided into 20 quadrats each  $10 \times 10 \text{ m.}$  Table 15 gives the number of individual plants in each quadrat, the frequency and the total area covered by each species.

The vegetation may be considered as an open scrubland with Acacia raddiana as the dominant species within the bush layer. Though its frequency is 60 % yet the total area covered by Acacia is by far the greatest (272.5 sq.m.). The number of individuals, when present, ranges from 1 to 7 per quadrat. These are apparently the remainder of a denser

population thinned by cutting. Zygophyllum coccineum, Asteriscus graveolens, Forskohlea tenacissima, Trichodesma africanum and Haloxylon salicornicum are species with frequency values of 50 % or more. All the species present (25 species), with the exception of Nitraria retusa, are typical desert plants.

### Stand B:

This stand is a sample area within a similar wadi cutting across the coastal strip 62 km. south of Suez. The area is divided into 20 quadrats, each  $10 \times 10 \text{ m}$ . Table 16, gives the number of individual plants in each quadrat, the frequency, and the total area covered by each species.

Acacia raddiana is present in three quadrats (fr. = 15%). individual in quadrat 7 with crown area of 60 sq.m., one individual in quadrat 9 with a crown area of 100 sq.m., and one stunted individual in quadrat 18 with an area of 1 sq.m. The total area covered by the species is 161 sq.m. This stand apparently represents an advanced stage of destruction to which this tree is subjected. The previous stand A is adjacent to a Frontier Guard Station and may, for this reason, have been partly protected. Associate species with frequency values of 50-100 % include Forskohlea tenacissima, Pulicaria undulata, Zilla spinosa, Zygophyllum coccineum, Trichodesma africanum, Fagonia mollis and Pulicaria crispa. There is obvious similarity between the associate species of the two stands. The differences in the frequency estimates of certain species such as Zilla spinosa (fr. = 95 % in stand B and 5 % in stand A), Pulicaria undulata (fr. = 100 % in stand B and 45 % in stand A), etc. are to be expected in the desert communities. Comparing the floristic composition of the two stands, we observe that there are 22 species common in the two stands, four species found only in stand A, and nine species found only in stand B.

### 3.72 The Juncus-Imperata type:

In the wadis with brackish water springs, the accumulation of the water at the ground surface and its subsequent evaporation cause the development of marshy habitats of different extent. *Juncus arabicus* and *Imperata cylindrica* are the species found in most of these localities.

Table 15

Analysis of 20 quadrats,  $10 \times 10$  m. each, set within stand A representing the Acacia raddiana scrubland. For each species are given the number of individuals in each quadrat, its frequency estimate (%), and the total area it covered within the sample area T (16.4.1960).

putare to the second se																						
Species	Quadrat's number															Fr.	T.					
Space	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	%	(sq. m)
Acacia raddiana Zygophyllum coccineum. Asteriscus graveolens. Taverniera aegyptiaca Forskohlea tenacissima Trichodesma africanum Haloxylon salicornicum Pulicaria undulata Linaria aegyptiaca Tricholaena teneriffae Fagonia mollis. Reseda arabica Pulicaria crispa. Echinops spinosissimus Zygophyllum decumbens Nitraria retusa Zygophyllum simplex	3 6 6 1 11 - - 1 - 1	5 2 1 23 4 1 ——————————————————————————————————	3 1 3 2 - 4 24 - - 1 - - 1	1 9 2 2 9 — 4 3 1 — 4 — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —	5 3 21 2 2 2 20 1 8 2 2 2 - 1 3 - 1 4	6 2 22 1 1 3 3 177 3 3 1 1 1 1 1	7 1 1 1 1 45 - 2 - 1 -	6 8 3 1 9 3 5 7 7 1 1 1 2	2 12 11 — 13 — 2 2 2 — — —	10 	11 - 10 - 1 2 - 1 - - - - - - - - - - - - -	7 1 5 3 6 1 2 2 1 1 1			9 - 1 - 1 1 1	16 2 10 3 - 8 - 2 1 13 2 - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	1 10 7 1 1 7 1 12 6 — 6 — 1 —	18	19	2 2 2 5 2 9 3 2 3 1 1 1 	60 95 75 65 60 55 50 45 45 40 30 25 20 20 15	(sq. m)  272.5 16 2 6 9 8 19 3 1 2.5 0.5 . 12 1.0 1
Pityranthus tortuosus Lycium arabicum Cleome droserifolia Gymnocarpos decandrum Ochradenus baccatus Pennisetum dichotomum Zilla spinosa Lavandula stricta Heliotropium undulatum		1		1	1					1		11								1	10 10 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	0.5

TABLE 16

Analysis of 20 quadrats,  $10 \times 10$  m. each, set within stand B representing the *Acacia raddiana* scrubland. For each species are given the number of individuals in each quadrat, its frequency estimate (%), and the total area it covers within the sample area T (16.4.1960).

Species	Quadrat's number															Fr.	Т.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	. %	(sq. m.)
Acacia raddiana							1		1	_								1		Saucht-Mills	15	161
Forskohlea tenacissima	5	5	3	7	3	11	9	5	16	10	4	4	8	10	4	7	16	8	9	14	100	18.5
Pulicaria undulata	11	5	8	4	16	3	1	6	6	1	6	6	8	7	8	12	6	7	5	5	100	37.7
Zilla spinosa	7	2	6	-	14	11	5	5	5	- 3	4	9	2	1	1	12	7	-6	2	5	95	34.5
Zygophyllum coccineum	5	3	11	9	3	1		2	8	10	9	5	3	1	2	4	2	3	. 1	5	95	13.6
Trichodesma africanum	8	8	7	7	10	9	5	9	, 9	. —	2	5	3	2		4	3	4	2.	3	90	19.8
Fagonia mollis	_	1	3	3	7_	1			1	***************************************	3	6	2	2	1	3	2	9	9	2	80	4.1
Pulicaria crispa		2	1	1		4	1					5	3	1				1	1	1	55	3.8
Asteriscus graveolens	6	1			1						1	4	4	2	1	-		1	-		45	1.2
Linaria aegyptiaca	-		1	_			-					1	2	3	2		-	1			35	0.5
Zygophyllum decumbens	3	1	1	1	-	_	_		_	1	-		-		1	sinores	1				35	1.7
Iphiona mucronata				3			2		`		_	2	1	1			1			-	30	2.2
Haloxylon salicornicum							,	3	3.	2	-					. —	1	_	- 4		20	5.9
Lavandula stricta						man-market	2					1	1			1_					20	1.0
Retama raetam			_		1	1		1	_	_				_				1	`-		20	4.7
Gymnocarpos decandrum			1	2			-				-		1					_	4	-	15	0.5
Pennisetum dichotomum				2		1		_		_			-		1			-	-		15	4.0
Echinops spinosissimus		4				1					_		1	_			_		-		15	
Tricholaena teneriffae			_		_	6			-				2	1						-	15	4000
Centaurea scoparia	_	_	_	_						_		-		1	-	. 1	_	-	-	AND ADDRESS OF THE PARTY OF THE	10	
Diplotaxis harra						name						_	1	-		-			1	-	10	
Cleome droserifolia	-						1			_	-				_			_	-		10	_
Ochradenus baccatus	_		_		1	1		-		_	_			-		-	_		*		10	4.0
Zygophyllum simplex			_				-		,		1	-	-	-	_		_		1	-	10	
Aizoon canariense		_			_		- Acad	1	- American	_			_		_	7	, -				5	
Heliotropium undulatum							1	_		_				_			-	-	-	_	5	
Gaillonia calycoptera	11		_				~	_	-	_		_						2			5	_
Launaea nudicaulis	11	_		_			_				_				_	. 1			_	_	5	-
Salvia aegyptiaca							-	_				-	_		1	and control of the last	_	_		-	5	
Nitraria retusa				_		-	-	_				-	_		_	1	_			-	- 5	
Cucumis prophetarum			_	_	-	_		_	-				_	_	_	-		_	1		5	-
r	-			-						+	-			_			-	-	1	1		

Date-palm groves (semi-wild) are often found, see (Pl. XI, A). In certain localities (e.g. Wadi Bir Qiseib) the marsh may include a small body of water which is covered with *Phragmites communis*.

In the wadis with these small oasis-like localities, the rest of the Wadi has a *Haloxylon*-community with occasional *Acacia raddiana*, *Tamarix* spp., *Leptadenia pyrotechnica*, etc.

One locality is worthy of especial mention, namely, Wadi El-Dom. This is a wadi cutting across the eastern scarp of the Galala B and pouring into the Gulf of Suez at 88 km. south of Suez. At the mouth of this wadi there is a group of dom palms (*Hyphaene thebaica*). This may represent a relic of previously more extensive growth, see (PL. XI, B).

#### 4.—GENERAL REMARKS

Within the northern part of the west coast of the Gulf of Suez the coastal land comprises three main ecosystems: salt marsh, coastal plain and coastal hills (Gebels). The differences in the habitat conditions are ultimately attributable to differences in water resources and salinity.

The salient feature of the salt marsh ecosystem is the excessive content of soluble salts and/or gypsum in one or more horizon of the soil profile. Water (as such) is not short and there is often a shallowly seated water table, mostly saline. The soil salinity is caused by either the sea water or springs of brackish water.

The littoral belt is under the direct (inundation) or indirect (salt water table) influence of the sea water. The ground level is a determinative factor which seems to control the inland extent of the salt marsh and the internal organization of its vegetational zones. In certain parts, especially on the fringes of the deltas of the main wadis, littoral chains of low sand hillocks or sheets may overlie the saline ground. Within this littoral belt a number of community types are recognized.

A reed swamp community of *Phragmites communis* is found within the channels of the creeks of the mouth of Wadi El-Ghweibba, see (Pl. VIII, B). The banks and fringes of the creeks are the habitat of a plant community dominated by *Juncus arabicus*. This community is well established in Ain El-Sokhna area which represents the combined

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influence of the sea and the brackish-water springs, see (Pl. IX, B and Pl. X, A) and Fig. 5.

The shore line zone of the littoral belt is essentially the habitat of a community type dominated by *Halocnemon strobilaceum*. In a few localities this is replaced by a community dominated by *Arthrocnemon glaucum*. Where the shore line zone is covered with sheets of sand (e.g. delta of Wadi Hommath), two community types are established: one dominated by *Cressa cretica* and the other by *Imperata cylindrica*, see quadrats 3 and 4 (Fig. 3) and quadrats 3-7 (Fig. 4) and (Pl. II, B).

The shore line zone is followed by a zone of higher salinity which is the habitat of two community types dominated by *Limonium pruinosum* or *Suaeda vermiculata*. There is a related community type dominated by *Limonium axillare* which is rare in the western coast of the Gulf of Suez but very common in the Red Sea coast south of Mersa Allam (lat. 25° N).

Within the inland zone of the littoral salt marsh belt there are two most common community types: Zygophyllum album community type and Nitraria retusa community type. Within the better favoured parts of this zone, e.g., the courses of drainage systems traversing the zone, there may be patches of Tamarix mannifera scrub.

Within the seaward fringes of the coastal hills, some of the wadis have springs of brackish water that form small oasis of rich plant growth of *Imperata cylindrica* and *Juncus arabicus*, see (Pl. XI, A).

Within the coastal plain and the hills ecosystems, plant growth is confined to the courses of the drainage system. These courses are usually well defined in the hill country. Across the coastal plain the water (drainage) courses are usually ill defined runnels within the much wider course of the wadi.

Plant growth varies in obvious relation with the extent of the catchment area and the texture of the cover. Several plant communities may be recognized, some are common in both ecosystems and some are confined to the hill ecosystem. There are two scrubland community types that are represented by relic patches: the Acacia raddiana scrub and the Tamarix aphylla scrub. The former is associated with coarse rubble deposits, the latter is confined to terraces of soft material (sand and silt). There are two other desert scrub community types that are less destroyed:

Retama raetam community type and the Leptadenia pyrotechnica-Launaea spinosa community type. The former is wide-spread in the Egyptian deserts, the latter is apparently confined to the Red Sea coastal land. These four community types are present in the main drainage channels.

The community type dominated by Haloxylon salicornicum is the most wide-spread type within the courses of the drainage system: tributaries and main channel. A community type dominated by Anabasis articulata is restricted to a limited part of Wadi Hommath. The community type dominated by Panicum turgidum is a wide-spread desert grassland type. The dominant species is an effective sand binder and its growth is usually associated with sheets of freshly deposited sand. The Artemisia judaica community type may be found in the sand-lined tributaries of the main wadis.

The above mentioned community types may be present in the two ecosystems. The following are mostly confined to the wadis of the hill country. The Launaea spinosa community type is common within the sand-and-silt terraces of the wadis. The Zilla spinosa community and the Zygophyllum coccineum community are more common in the wadis of the limestone hills. The Cleome droserifolia community type characterizes the parts of the wadis where the floor is covered with boulders and other coarse detritus.

The community type dominated by *Iphiona mucronata* is occasionally found in parts of the wadi bed where the rock surface has but little cover of rock fragments. It reminds us with the community type dominated by *Stachys aegyptiaca* described by Kassas and Imam (1954). The community type dominated by *Hyparrhenia hirta* is here a depauperate grassland confined to the upstream parts of the finer runnels.

There are a few plants that characterize the cliffs and the dry water-falls that intercept the courses of the wadis traversing the hills: Capparis spinosa, Capparis cartilaginea and Ficus pseudosycomorus.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

The field work comprised in the studies here reported was made possible by a generous grant-in-aid from UNESCO and by transport facilities provided

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by the National Research Centre, the Desert Institute and the Department of Geological and Mining Research. Laboratory accommodation was provided in the Department of Botany, University of Cairo. The writers, while acknowledging the assistance and help of the above mentioned institutions, wish to record their gratitude in particular to Prof. A. R. Tourky (Director) and Dr. M. Hafez (Secretary General) of the National Research Centre; Prof. E. Shishini and Prof. M. M. Ibrahim former and present directors of the Desert Institute; Prof. H. Saïd head of the Department of Botany and Dean of the Faculty of Science, University of Cairo, Prof. R. Higazy undersecretary for Industry (Department of Geology and Mining Research) and Dr. M. Batisse of the Unesco. There are many other individuals who have kindly helped and encouraged the progress of this work.

The plants referred to in this report are deposited in the Herbarium of the Faculty of Science, University of Cairo. Prof. (Mrs.) Vivi Täckholm D. Sc. revised their identification. She also took part in many of the excursions and lent valuable assistance in the field work. To her the writers extend their warmest thanks. During this study especially in the field work the writers were assisted by two colleagues M. S. H. El-Abyad, M. Sc., and W. A. Girgis, B. Sc. To them the writers are indebted for their unfailing help.

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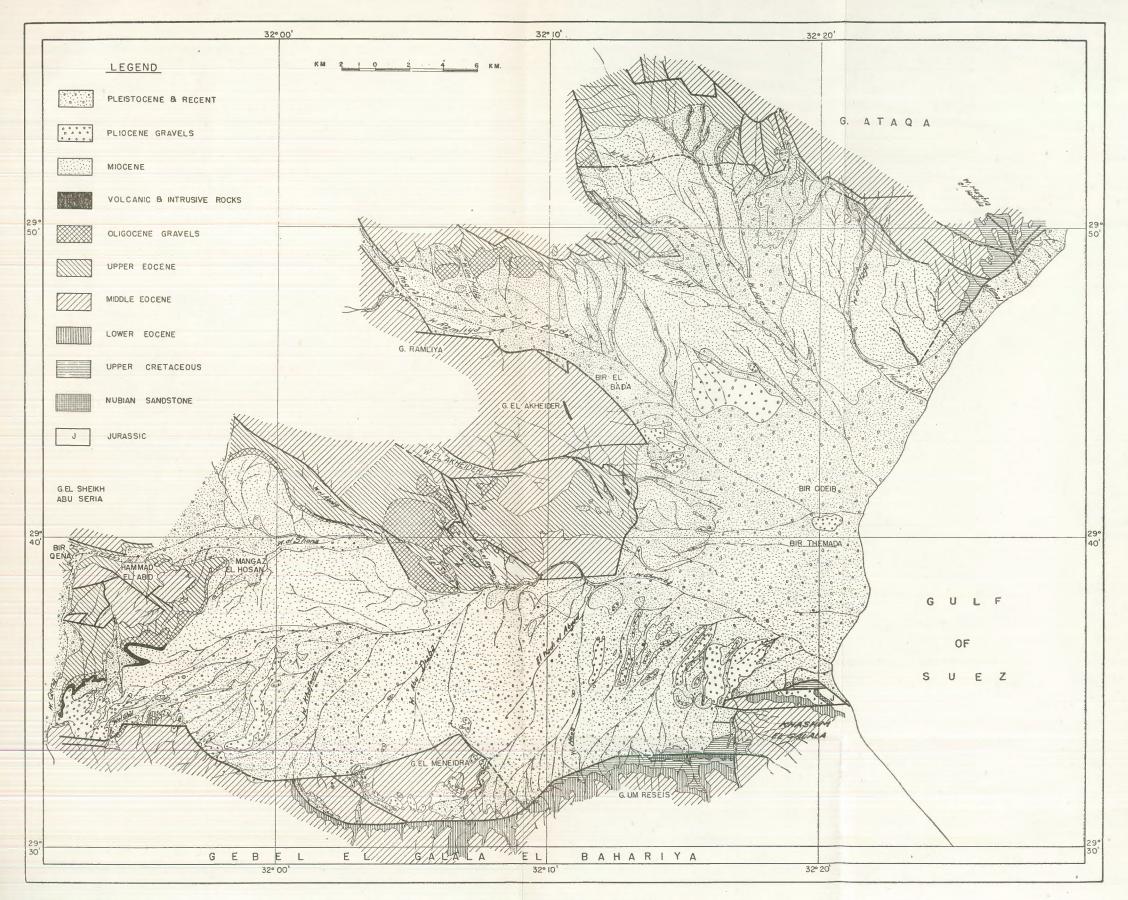


Fig. 1.—Geological map of the district between Gebel Ataqa and Gebel El Galala El Bahariya, after Sadek (1926).

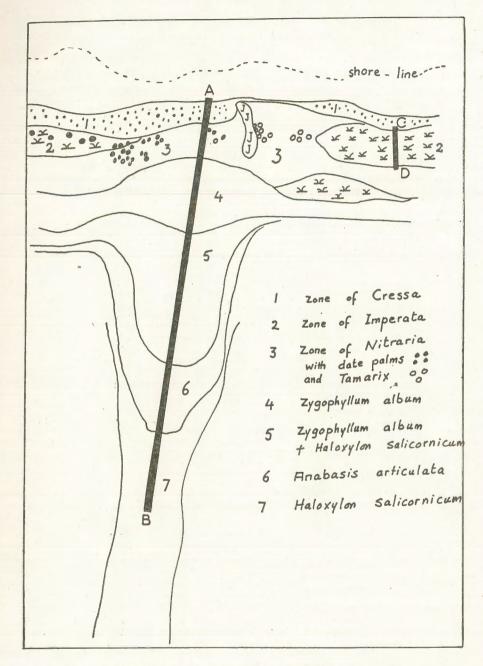


Fig. 2.—Sketch map of the downstream part of wadi Homath showing the pattern of vegetational zonation and the position of belt transects AB and CD.

Cressa cretica . . . Farsetia aegyptiaca 000 Alhagi maurorum Ephedra alata Zygophyllum album Crotalaria aegyptiaca 000 Nitraria retusa Pennisetum dichotomum n n n Tamarix mannifera Polycarpaea repens vvv Panicum turgidum (F) Artemisia judaica AAA Launaea spinosa (++++) Zilla pronige 222 Retama raetam 4 4 4 Limonium pruinosum LLL Haloxylon salicornicum Pithyranthus tortuo sus PPP Calligonum comosum 0000 Echinops spinosissimus EEE Zygophyllum coccineum (111) Lasiurus 5 5 5 hirsutus Anabasis articulata GGG Gymnocarpos decandrum 6 6 6 Ochradenus baccatus Arthrochemon glaucum RRR TIT Lavandula stricta Phoenix dactylifera Suaeda vermiculata J green & dead Juncus arabicus Imperata cylindrica

Reference for Figs. 3 and 4.

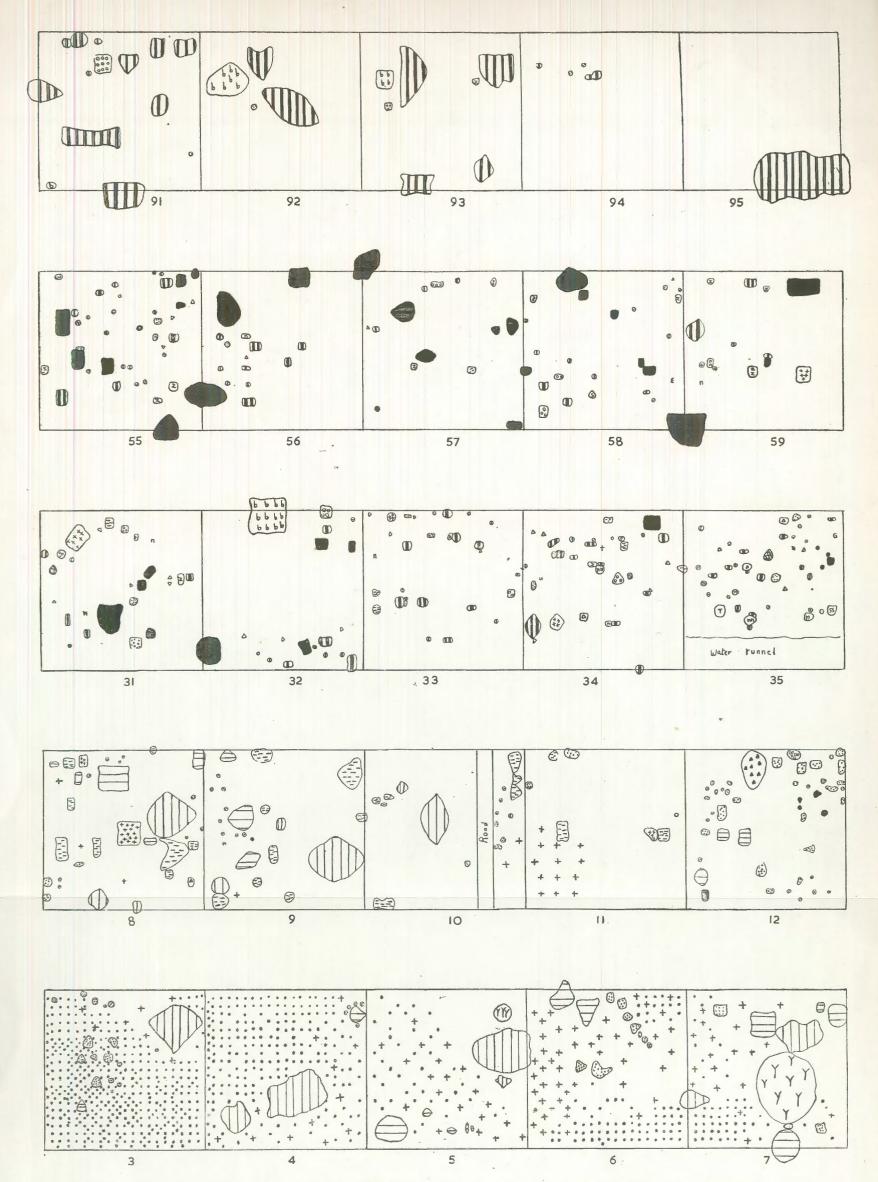


Fig. 3.—Charts of representative quadrats of belt transect AB (Wadi Hommath). Quadrats 3-4 show the features of the zone of Cressa cretica; quadrats 5-7 show the transition towards the Nitraria retusa with the preponderance of Alhagi maurorum; quadrats 8-10 represent the zone of Nitraria retusa; quadrats 11-12 represent the transition towards the Zygophyllum album zone; quadrats 31-35 represent mixed vegetation; quadrats 55-59 represent the zone of Anabasis articulata and quadrats 91-95 represent the zone of Haloxylon salicernicum. For the explanation of symbols see reference for Figs. 3 and 4.

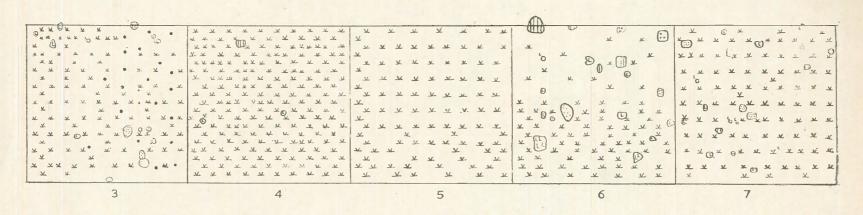
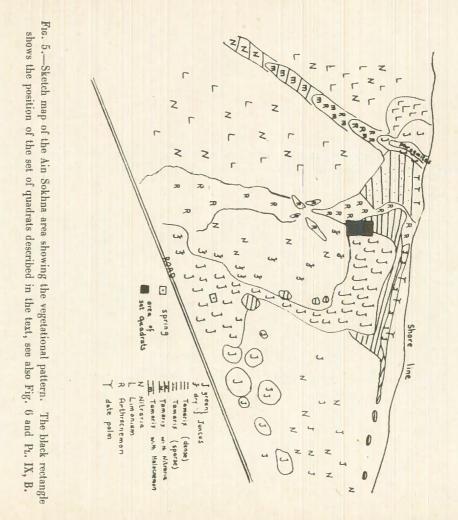


Fig. 4.—Charts of representative quadrats of transect CD (wadi Hommath). Imperata cylindrica is dominant all through. For explanation of symbols see reference for Figs. 3 and 4 (quadrat  $20 \times 20$ ).



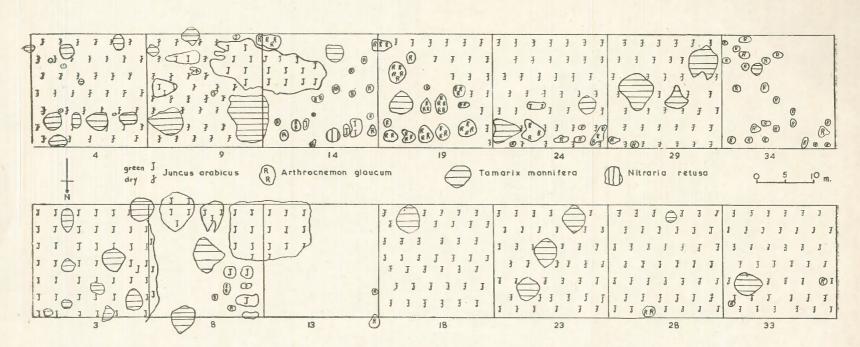


Fig. 6.—Charts of quadrats representing the set of quadrats described in the text. Quadrats 3, 8 and 13 show the green Juncus, the other quadrats show the dry Juncus with various phases of Tamarix invasion, quadrat 34 represent the Arthrochemon glaucum growth which is also obvious in quadrat 19.



PLATES



A

Littoral part of Wadi Hommath from the shore-line looking inland. In the foreground *Cressa cretica*, in the background *Nitraria*, *Tamarix* and date-palm, (June 1960).



R

Wadi Hommath. Zone of Anabasis articulata, note the size of the hummock, (June 1960).



Wadi Hommath, inland zone. Haloxylon salicornicum dominant. Note the individuals of Leptadenia pyrotechnica in the distant background, (June 1960).



Wadi Hommath delta. Community of Imperata cylindrica, (June 1960).



A

Wadi Hagul, upstream part, looking northward. Note the gentle dip-slopes of the upper Eocene limestone of Ataqa. Note also the abundance of plants on the fringes of the central water channel, (November 1960).



B

Wadi Hagul, upstream part, looking southward. Note the precipitous cliffs of the north scarp of Gebel Kahaliya, (November 1960).



Wadi Hagul. Zilla spinosa community. Note the mixed deposits of the bed, (November 1960).



В

An affluent of Wadi Hagul cutting across the plain. The Miocene plateau is seen in the background. The bed is covered with sand, note the ripple marks. Retama raetam is very abundant, note the silt mounds around its growth, (November 1960).



A

Inland part of Wadi El-Bada. Gravel terrace covered with rich growth of *Haloxylon salicornicum*. In the background may be seen bushes of *Leptadenia* and *Acacia*, (June 1960).

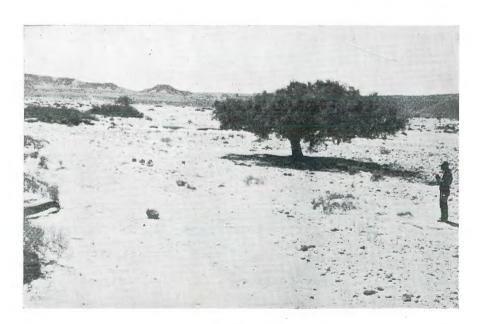


B

Inland part of Wadi El-Bada, Leptadenia pyrotechnica bushes and associated Haloxylon salicornicum, (June 1960).



A
Inland part of Wadi El-Ghweibba. Silt terraces with Tamarix aphylla, (June 1960).



Inland part of Wadi El-Ghweibba, main channel of the Wadi. A tree of *Tamarix aphylla* is seen. Patches of ground growth of the same species are seen on the left-hand side, (June 1960).



Wadi Morrir. A water-fall cliff with hanging Capparis spinosa and Ficus pseudosycomorus (white stem), (December 1960).

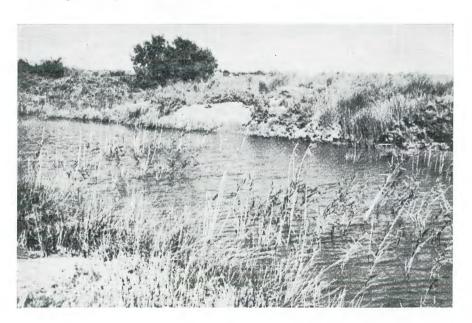


General view of the coastal gravel plain with a runnel lined with sand. Panicum turgidum is the dominant grass. Acacia raddiana tree is also seen, (June 1960).



A

The inland part of a tidal creek, note the water. Arthrocnemon glaucum and Halocnemon strobilaceum are most abundant. Small patches of Juncus arabicus may be seen in the foreground. Rich growth of Tamarix mannifera is seen in the background, (December 1960).



E

The tidal creek. Phragmites communis in the water, Juncus arabicus fringes the creek, Tamarix mannifera in the background, (December 1960).



Littoral vegetation, 63 km. south of Suez, dominated by *Halocnemon strobilaceum*, (April 1960).



 $\mathbf{R}$ 

General view of the Ain El-Sokhna area. Note the central area covered with *Juncus arabicus* in a foreground and a background triangle with a runnel in between. Note the circular patches of *Juncus* growth on the right-hand side, see also Fig. 5, (December 1960).



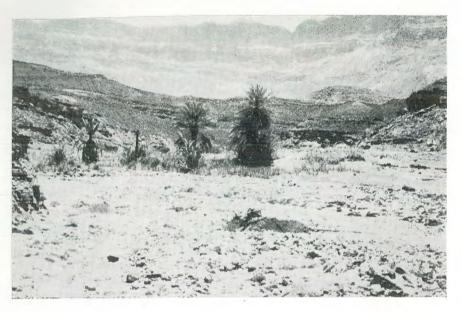
Δ

A view of the area surveyed (Ain El-Sokhna). In the foreground are seen the dead tussocks of *Juncus arabicus*. Green growth of *Juncus* is seen in the mid-ground and *Tamarix mannifera* is seen in the background, (December 1960).



 $\mathbf{R}$ 

Wadi cutting across the narrow coastal plain at the eastern feet of Galala B. Acacia raddiana scrub, (June 1960).



Α

Wadi draining the eastern scarp of Galala B. Note the local oasis-like formation with *Juncus arabicus, Imperata cylindrica* and semi-wild date palms, (June 1960).



I

Wadi El-Dom, 88 km. south of Suez, with relics of dom-palm groves, (April 1960).

# THE COPTIC MONUMENTS

# IN THE NILE VALLEY BETWEEN SÔHÂG AND ASWÂN

BY

#### OTTO MEINARDUS

Whereas there is considerable amount of literature about the four inhabited Coptic monasteries in the Wadi 'n-Natrun and the two Coptic monasteries of the Eastern Desert, the uninhabited Christian churches and monasteries in the Nile Valley are only sparingly studied. True, there are the descriptions of al-Makarim (mistakenly called Abû Sâlih the Armenian) of the 13th century and the very inclusive catalogue of churches and monasteries by the 15th century Islamic historian al-Magrîzî. Yet, many of the churches and monasteries referred to by these two capable authorities have vanished. During the latter part of the 17th century, Johann Michael Wansleben listed some of the Christian monuments in the Nile Valley which he was able to visit. Yet, our knowledge of these places, many of which are quite inaccessible, remained largely obscure until the days of Somers Clarke, who in 1901 undertook to visit and study many of the secluded spots at the edges of the desert. Even Somers Clarke, however, was unable to visit and describe «all» sites. In spite of the many criticisms levelled at him, Clarke did outstanding pioneer work in mapping the most important Christian antiquities in the Nile Valley. In addition to his comprehensive work, there are a few regional studies, of which the most noteworthy were written by De Bock, Matériaux pour servir à l'Archéologie de l'Égypte Chrétienne, 1901, Johann Georg, Streifzüge durch die Kirchen und Klöster Ägyptens, 1914, Lefort, L. Th., «Les premiers monastères Pachomiens», Le Muséon, 52, 9-15, and Doresse, J. «Monastères Coptes aux environs d'Armant en Thébaïde», Analecta Bollandiana, LXVII, 327-349.

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In spite of these previous studies, we are as yet sadly ignorant as to the number, exact location and history of many of these institutions. It goes without saying, that only very few scholars have ventured to visit these sites. Many, perhaps the majority, of the churches and monasteries are situated in secluded areas where the desert hills which border the Nile Valley provided quiet retreats. Moreover, the work of discovering, mapping and ascertaining information about these places is made additionally difficult by the lack of knowledge of the Coptic fellahin, who, always trying to appear polite, will offer some information whether right or wrong, rather than to appear impolite. Indeed, if one searches in the field for historical information, trouble multiplies a hundredfold, since very few Copts know anything about their history, and the standard answer that their church or monastery dates back to the days of St. Helena cannot possibly satisfy the critical student.

The following pages describe the Christian antiquities in the Nile Valley between Sôhâg and Aswân. A description of the Coptic Monuments in the Nile Valley between Cairo and Sôhâg and the Oasis of the Fayyûm will appear in vol. XXXVI of the Bulletin de la Société de Géographie d'Egypte.

## THE CHURCHES

# AND MONASTERIES BETWEEN SÔHÂG AND ASWÂN

## 1. THE CHURCHES AND MONASTERIES WEST OF SOHAG

THE WHITE MONASTERY NEAR SÔHÂG

An embanked road leads west from the southern part of Sôhâg via the village of Mazâlweh to the early Christian settlement of the White Monastery (Dair al-Abiad), which is dedicated to St. Shenute. The distance from Sôhâg to the White Monastery, which is situated on the edge of the desert, is about four and a half kilometres. The monastery is surrounded on its north, west and south sides by a large amount of debris, both of burnt and crude brick. The monastery with its cells, kitchens, storehouses, therefore, included not only the present stone structures, the ruins of which can still be seen.

The original settlement, situated west of Sôhâg, was founded by St. Bigoul. After his father's death, St. Shenute became a monk in the monastery of St. Bigoul who happened to be his maternal uncle. Before long, St. Shenute's administrative gifts led him to important offices in the monastic community and in the church. At his uncle's death (385 A.D.) St. Shenute became the hegoumenos of the monastery. In the monastery, the rule was based upon the precepts of St. Bigoul, which were similar to those of St. Pachomius. In 431 A.D., St. Shenute attended the Occumenical Council of Ephesus where he opposed strongly the Antiochene monk Nestorius. In 451 A.D., St. Shenute also attended the Council of Chalcedon. The date of his death seems to have been about 466 A.D. He was a religious reformer who was ready to employ physical force in dealing with disobedient monks.

Following the death of St. Shenute, the community continued under the leadership of Beza who was succeeded by Zenobius. — In the middle of the eighth century, al-Kasim ibn 'Ubaid Allah, the governor, entered the monastery together with the odalisque who was with him and forced his way into the church. Thereupon, the horse which the woman was riding fell to the ground, and both the woman and the horse died. — Some inscriptions on the wall-paintings of the central apse of the sanctuary

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furnish us with some historical information of the period from 1076-1124. Those who engraved their names were Armenians who had established themselves in the White Monastery. Thus Bahram, the Armenian Christian, who had been vizier in the caliphate of al-Hâfiz became a monk in this monastery after he was banished from his office.

In the 12th century, the monastery must have enjoyed a period of prosperity which in 1168 was interrupted by an assault of the soldiers of Sirkûh. Abû Sâlih (13th cent.) records that within the monastery are the bodies of the two disciples, Bartholomew and Simon the Canaanite. Moreover, he states that in this monastery there is a keep, and there is around the keep and the monastery also a wall of enclosure, within which there is a garden full of all sorts of trees. Major restorations of the monastery took place between 1202 and 1259. In the latter part of the 18th century, the south-west corner of the enclosing wall had collapsed, but was rebuilt under the direction of Muhammad Ali. In 1907, the monastery was repaired again, the incrustations of brickwork were removed and the doorways were uncovered.

The monastery was visited by Wansleben (1672), Pococke (1737) who followed Wansleben in ascribing the foundation of the monastery to St. Helena. Denon (1798) saw the monastery the day following its destruction by the Mameluks. Robert Curzon (1833) visited the monastery and Butler (1884) restated the observations of other travellers. Fergusson (1893) published a plan of the monastery, yet the most significant studies were done by W. de Bock (1901), C. R. Peers (1904), W. M. F. Petrie (1907), S. Clarke (1912), and Monneret de Villard (1925).

Every visitor or tourist who is interested in Christian antiquities should not fail to visit this monastery, which in the words of Somers Clarke is «the noblest church of which we have any remains in Egypt, the chief monument of the Christians ...». According to Petrie, the existing church is the second one built in this locality. It is quite obvious that the monks could not possibly have lived within the four walls of the present building which consists merely of the church, the narthex at its western end and a very long hall, situated on the southern side of the church, and several apartments for two Coptic priests and several Coptic families who inhabit the monastery.

The appearance of the monastery from the outside shows a striking resemblance to that of an Egyptian temple. The monastery is entered

through a gate in the southern wall which leads to the great hall parallel to the nave of the Church of St. Shenute.

The Church of St. Shenute occupies the major part of the monastery. The church has three apses at the east end, which are vaulted with burnt brick. The walls of the apses are decorated with columns in two ranges, each surmounted by architraves, and between the columns are niches. The semi-domes are decorated with wall-paintings representing the Dormition of the Blessed Virgin Mary (north), the Pantocrator and the four Evangelists (centre) and the Resurrection with the two women and two angels (south). The church has three sanctuaries which are dedicated to St. George (north), St. Shenute (centre) and the Blessed Virgin Mary (south). The wooden sanctuary screen is relatively modern. There are no altars in the northern and southern apses.

The narthex, situated at the western end of the nave has a semicircular apse, and the columns, the architrave and the vault of the apse are all at the north end. The side walls of the narthex are decorated with niches.

South of the narthex is a large staircase, the lower part of which is terribly damaged and even the upper part is in a sad condition. By climbing the stairs (utmost care has to be exercised) one will eventually reach the top of the wall which is crowned with a cornice. From here one has a beautiful view on the Nile Valley and the mountains. The walls of the monastery show traces of painting on a thin coat of plaster with which the whole monastery seems to have been covered. Two ranges of recesses, like windows, are seen in the outer walls.

South of the staircase is a room with a dome built entirely of burnt brick which was rebuilt in the 19th century. Here the well is situated.

# THE RED MONASTERY NEAR SOHAG

The Red Monastery (Dair al-Ahmar) or the Monastery of St. Bishoi (Dair Anbâ Bishoi) is situated about 3 km. north of the White Monastery at the extreme western edge of the cultivated land. It can be easily approached by car. Unlike the White Monastery, the Red Monastery is situated within a village, and some houses lie to the south and to the

east. The area to the north and to the west of the monastery is mainly covered with debris.

The monastery received its name from the burnt red bricks of its outside wall which are considerably thicker at the base than at the top.

The historical data of this monastery are very scarce, and it seems that the Red Monastery existed throughout the centuries in the shadow of the White Monastery. An inscription in the monastery refers to a certain monk Mercurius who entered the monastery in 1301. Maqrîzî (15th cent.) mentions the monastery without giving any information about its history. We know from Denon (1798) that at the time of his visit the monastery was sacked by the Mameluks. Wansleben (1672) and Pococke (1737) visited the monastery.

One enters the monastery through a gate in the south wall and then passes through a passage between houses to the main court which may have been the nave of the Church of St. Bishoi. The church is situated in the north-eastern corner of the monastery. The original plan of this church is almost the same as that of the Church of St. Shenute. The semi-domes are adorned with beautiful wall-paintings. The walls of the apses are decorated with columns in two ranges, each surmounted by architraves, and between the columns are niches.

The Church of St. Bishoi has one haikal. Icons of SS. Shenute, Bishoi and Bigoul are attached to the haikal screen. The north and south apses are without altars.

The area of the original nave and aisles of the church is largely occupied with buildings. The Church of the Blessed Virgin Mary is situated in the southwestern corner of the monastery. This church seems to be of high antiquity. Immediately west of the church is the well.

The Red Monastery, except that it is much smaller, was built on the same plan as that of St. Shenute.

Lit: Monneret, de Villard, Les couvents près de Sôhag. Milan, 1925.

Denon, V., Voyage dans la Basse et la Haute Égypte, pendant les campagnes du Général Bonaparte. Paris, 1802.

Curzon, R., Visits to the Monasteries in the Levant. London, 1847.

Fergusson, A History of the Architecture. London, 1893.

Peers, C. R., «The White Monastery near Sôhâg», Archaeological Journal, 1904, 131-153.

Deichmann, F. W. «Zum Altägyptischen in der Koptischen Baukunst», Mitteilungen des Deutschen Instituts für Ägyptische Altertumskunde in Kairo, VIII, (1939) 34-37.

LEFEBURE, «Dayr el-Abiad» in Cabrol, Dictionnaire, fig. 3646.

LEFEBURE, cf. Annales du Service des Antiquités, XX, 1920, 250.

LEIPHOLDT, Shenute von Atripe und die Entstehung des national-ägyptischen Christentums. Leipzig, 1903.

HARVEY, LETHABY, DALTON, The Church of the Nativity. London, 1910.

WILKENSON, Topography of Thebes. London, 1835.

POCOCKE, A Description of the East. Vol. I. London, 1743.

#### THE HERMITAGE OF ATHRIBIS

The hermitage of Athribis is situated about 3 km. south of the White Monastery (Dair al-Abiad) which is dedicated to St. Shenute. A cave, not very large, and cut in the side of the Mountain of Athribis, served as a chapel or a hermitage.

At the entrance of the cave, on the right, there is a Coptic inscription of a badly mutilated prayer, on the left, there is a representation of a pigeon with wings stretched out and a cross on its head. On the north wall of the cave is a hunting scene. Furthermore, there are several crosses and birds (pigeons (?)). One cross is decorated with the letters «alpha» and «omega».

The site can be easily reached from Sôhâg or the White Monastery.

Lit.: De Bock, W., Matériaux pour servir à l'Archéologie de l'Egypte Chrétienne. St. Petersbourg, 1901.

#### 2. THE CHURCHES AND MONASTERIES EAST OF AKHMÎM

THE MONASTERY OF ST. PACHOMIUS AT SAWAM'A SHARQ

The Monastery of St. Pachomius (Dair Anbâ Bakhûm) is situated in the village of Sawâm'a Sharq, about 8 km. north of Akhmîm. To reach the monastery, it is advisable to proceed from Akhmîm for 2½ km. in north-easterly direction. Having reached the road-fork, follow the Saiyalet Akhmîm al-Sharqiya Canal for another 3 km. in north-westerly direction to Ubbâr al-Waqf. Turn right on the road to Sawâm'a Sharq. The village of Sawâm'a Sharq is situated on the edge of the desert and the Monastery of St. Pachomius lies in the northern part of the village.

The Church of St. Pachomius is the only construction which has survived the destruction of the monastery. The church, which has five haikals, is situated within a court-yard. The western part of the church is an addition of a more recent date. Above the entrance to the church are numerous Ptolemaic inscriptions. There is good reason to believe that the present edifice was built upon the site of an older church.

#### THE MONASTERY OF ST. MICHAEL EAST OF AKHMIM

The Monastery of the Archangel Michael (Dair al-Malak) is situated on the edge of the desert near the village of as-Salâmûni, about 2 km. north of al-Hawâwîsh. The monastery is easily accessible from Akhmîm. Follow the bus from the station of the Akhmîm markaz to al-Hawâwîsh and from there turn on to the road which leads to al-Galaweyah. At as-Salâmûni turn in easterly direction towards the monastery in the desert.

The key for the monastery can be obtained from the priest in Sôhâg or the bishop in Akhmîm. The monastery is still used at certain occasions, especially on the Feasts of the Archangel Michael on November 21 and June 19.

The Church of St. Michael has three haikals which are dedicated to the Holy Virgin (south), St. Michael (centre) and St. George (north). According to tradition, the monastery was built in the 13th century.

The monastery is mentioned by Maqrîzî (15th cent.) who states: «The Church of Michael, also at Ikhmim. There is a custom among the Christians at these two churches, that when they are keeping the Feast of Palms, also called the Feast of Hosanna, the priests and deacons go in procession with censers, incense, crosses, the gospels, and lighted candles, and stand before the door of the Cadi, and then before the doors of the most respectable Muslims, where they burn incense, read a passage of the Gospel, and sing a hymn, that is to say, praise him.»

Lit: AL-MAKRîzî, Khitat, Ed. B. T. A. Evetts, Churches and Monasteries of Egypt. Oxford, 1895.

## THE MONASTERY OF THE MARTYRS EAST OF AKHMIM

The Monastery of the Martyrs (Dair as-Shuhada) is situated within a cemetery on a slight elevation. The monastery can be conveniently

reached by car, taxi or buses from the station at the Akhmim markaz. From Akhmim proceed in easterly direction for about 6 km. to the Social Centre of al-Hawawish. From al-Hawawish the Monastery of the Martyrs can be reached by walking through the cultivated land and the desert for about 1 km. in slightly northerly direction. (The people working at the Social Centre will gladly furnish a guide if necessary).

The monastery can be visited without a key, since the key seems to be lost, though a large stone is rolled against the entrance door from within(!) The Church of the Martyrs has altogether seven haikals, though the original church had only three haikals. Three haikals were added on the south side, one haikal was added on the north side of the church. The three central haikals are dedicated to the Holy Virgin (south), the Holy Martyrs (centre) and St. Michael (north). From the roof of the church one has a beautiful view over the Nile valley. The cells and the storage-rooms are situated north of the church.

Special services are conducted by the priests of Akhmim on January 10, and July 9.

Maqrîzî (15th cent.) refers to the monastery and states: «Church of Asutir, which means the Saviour; this stands in the city of Ikhmim, and is much revered among the Christians; it bears the name of the Martyrs, and there is a well there, the water of which, if it be put into a lamp, becomes of a deep-red colour like blood.»

## THE MONASTERY OF THE HOLY VIRGIN EAST OF AKHMÎM

The Monastery of the Holy Virgin (Dair al-Adhra) east of Akhmîm can be conveniently reached by following the road parallel the Saiyalet Sahil al-Hawâwîsh Canal towards al-Hawâwîsh (6 km.). From the Social Centre of al-Hawâwîsh, which is situated at the very end of the road, the monastery can be reached within ten minutes of walking. The monastery is situated on the edge of the desert, though in the desert. Busses and taxis commute between the Akhmîm markaz and the Social Centre of al-Hawâwîsh. The keys for the monastery are with the priest in Akhmîm.

The Church of the Holy Virgin is situated in the eastern part of the monastery. The original church had three haikals which are dedicated to

St. George (south), the Holy Virgin (centre) and al-Malak (St. Michael) (north). North of the main church we find two additional haikals which are of more recent origin. These two haikals are dedicated to St. Paul the Hermit and to St. Antony. The western part of the church is not covered with the traditional domes, but with vaults. The church is noteworthy because of its beautiful interior decoration consisting of coloured bricks. The date of the church is difficult to determine, though it may belong to the 17th or 18th century.

The cells and storage-rooms are situated to the south and to the north of the church. The Divine Liturgy is celebrated in the Church on the following days:

December 12, the Feast of the Presentation of the Holy Virgin.

January 29, the Feast of the Falling Asleep of the Holy Virgin.

June 28, the Commemoration of the first church dedicated to the Holy Virgin at Philippi.

August 22, the Feast of the Assumption of the Holy Virgin.

THE MONASTERY OF THE SEVEN MOUNTAINS EAST OF AKHMIM

The Monastery of the Seven Mountains can be reached from Akhmîm by proceeding first to the village of al-Hawâwîsh. From there continue in north-westerly direction to the village of as-Salâmûni, which is situated at the edge of the desert. At as-Salâmûni enter the Wadi Bir al-'Ain and follow the wadi for nine kilometres in north-easterly direction. The ruins are situated near the Bir al-'Ain.

Before arriving at this site, one notices on the right a large rock which apparently has fallen from the mountain. One side of this rock is covered with inscriptions and designs and graffiti. Most of these graffiti are in Greek, moreover, there are crosses as well as monograms of Christ.

The monastery was a laura rather than a fortified and enclosed settlement. The ruins of the crumbled church are at the bottom of the gorge, the dwellings of the monks were situated on the slope of the mountains. These hermitages can be only reached by the use of steep and perilous paths. The ruins are completely abandoned.

It is possible that this monastery may have offered shelter to Nestorius, who was first exiled to Kharga Oasis, but later transferred to Akhmîm. Yet there is nothing, except traditions, which confirm this.

Lit.: Munier, H., «Les Monuments Coptes d'après les explorations du Père Jullien», Bull. Soc. Arch. Copte, VI, 147-151.

Note: This is not the monastery described by al-Maqrîzî as the Monastery of the Seven Mountains. (ed. Evetts, p. 315.)

#### THE MONASTERY OF ST. GEORGE SOUTH OF AKHMIM

The Monastery of St. George (Dair Mari Girgis al-Hadidi) is situated on the east bank of the Nile, about 8 km. south of Akhmîm. The monastery, which is situated on an elevation, is easily accessible, though one should obtain the key from the Coptic priest in Akhmîm. The monastery stands but a short distance back from the Nile, and sailing past, one observes the rectangular enclosure-wall and a low dome rising above it. North of the enclosure is the village of Dair al-Hadid.

Entering the enclosure, there are several small houses, huts which are inhabited by Coptic families. The Church of St. George stands against the eastern wall of the enclosure and has three haikals which are dedicated to St. Michael (south), St. George (centre) and the Holy Virgin (north). The church is well preserved and offers a very good example of an Upper Egyptian Coptic Church. The nave consists of five bays from east to west. The nave is roofed with domes which are supported by pillars set in squares at an equal distance from each other.

In addition to the three central haikals, there are two side chapels on the north and the south end of the nave. The visitor ought to note the north chapel which had a slice of it taken off, so that the apse vault and the dome are completely cut through. The church is entirely plastered and whitewashed. The principal door faces the central haikal, while two other doors give access to the chapels in the north and in the south.

The church was reconstructed in the beginning of the 19th century. Special services are conducted in the church on November 16 and May 1.

Lit.: Munier, H., «Les Monuments Coptes d'après le Père Michel Jullien», Bull. Soc. Arch. Copte, VI, 157.

CLARKE, S., Christian Antiquities in the Nile Valley. Oxford 1912.

The visitor should note the beautiful entrance to the church. The church has seven haikals with artistically carved haikal screens. Above the individual haikal-doors, icons of the respective patron-saints indicate their dedication. From the north to the south, the haikals are dedicated to St. Antony, the Holy Virgin, St. Moses, St. Michael, St. Dimianah, St. George, and St. John the Baptist. Eleven domes cover the church. The Monastery of St. Moses is now inhabited by several Coptic families.

The monastery, known to Abû Sâlih (13th cent.) as the Monastery of Bani Musa, was restored at the expense of as-Safi, who was its abbot. Noteworthy in those days was its gate which was plated with iron and studded with nails. It contained a waterwheel for irrigation. The body of St. Moses, a native of al-Balyana, is said to have been buried there. Maqrîzî (15th cent.) merely states that this is a large monastery. In 1590, the monastery was reconstructed.

Lit.: Johann Georg, Streifzüge durch die Kirchen und Klöster Ägyptens. Leipzig, 1914.

Cauwenbergh, P. van, Étude sur les moines d'Égypte depuis le Concile de Chalcédoine, etc. Paris, 1914.

# 4. THE PACHOMIAN MONASTERIES BETWEEN NAG' HAMMÂDI AND LUXOR.

The Monastery of St. Bidaba near Nag' Hammâdi

The Monastery of St. Bidaba (Dair Anbâ Bidâba) is situated in the cultivated land about two kilometres south-west of the railway-station of Nag' Hammâdi. The ancient monastery which has been placed on the side of a pool and on a mound is actually inhabited by several Coptic families and some Coptic nuns.

Inside the surrounding wall, the buildings are constructed on various levels. The monastery has three adjoining churches, which give the impression of dark cellars. The churches are dedicated to the Holy Virgin, to St. Bidaba and to St. Sidarus the Martyr. Divine services are provided by the priest of al-Gharbi Bahgura. According to tradition, the monastery was founded by St. Helena. St. Bidaba, Bishop of Qift, suffered martyrdom at Esna under Emperor Claudius.

Lit.: Lefort, L. Th., «Les premiers monastères Pachomiens», Le Muséon, LII, 9-15.

#### THE MONASTERY OF ST. MENAS AT HIW

The Monastery of St. Menas (Dair Mari Mina al-Agayebi) is situated about 1 km. south of the village of Hiw on the edge of the desert. To visit the monastery, one should proceed from Nag' Hammâdi in south-easterly direction along the Nile to Hiw. After passing through the village of Hiw, turn right before crossing the new bridge and follow the road parallel to the canal for 1 km. and then proceed southwards towards the desert. The monastery is actually situated in al-Gammana (Mahagar Hôr), about 1 km. west of the site where the road meets the desert.

The Church of St. Menas is situated at the very edge of the desert, but in the cultivated land. One enters the church through a door in the north wall.

The church has five haikals which are dedicated from north to south to St. Sidarus, the Holy Virgin, St. Menas, St. George and St. Victor. The central altar of St. Menas is surmounted by a wooden dome. The western part of the church is of a more recent origin. The screen of the haikal of St. Victor is the oldest one, dating to 1729 A.D. The other screens belong to the first decade of the 20th century.

Noteworthy in the church is a small triptych representing St. Menas (centre) and St. Michael (right). The picture of the left portion is obliterated. Moreover, there is a good icon of St. Menas (1860).

The monastery is inhabited by seven priests with their families.

According to tradition, the site of the church was claimed by the Muslims as the burial place of a shaikh. There was a very poor man, however, who lived in Hiw and who acted as farfash at the sugar factory. One night, this man saw a vision of St. Menas who told him that he wished to have a church built. St. Menas took the farrash to a patch of halfa grass in the fields and told him to dig the whole plot which he had measured out to a depth of two and half metres. The Saint ordered the farrash to begin building the church immediately, then St. Menas vanished.

Lit.: Blackman, W. S., The Fellahin of Upper Egypt, London, 1927, 248-9.

THE MONASTERY OF ST. PALAMON NEAR KASR AS-SAYAD

The Monastery of St. Palamon (Dair Anbâ Balamûn), also known as the Monastery of St. Mercurius (Dair Abû-s-Saifain) is situated on the Asyût-Luxor road. Coming from Asyût, the monastery is situated about

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1 km. beyond Kasr as-Sayad on the left side of the road. The visitor cannot fail to notice the monastery which is enclosed by a wall. The bell-tower and a large dome are visible from a far distance.

One enters the monastery-yard through a gate in the eastern wall. The church immediately to the right is the Church of St. Mercurius (Abu-s-Saifain). The church has three haikals, the central one is dedicated to the Blessed Virgin Mary, the northern one to St. Macarius and the southern one to St. Mercurius. Abutting to the southern part of the church are two rooms, which at one time may have served as haikals. The most southern room contains the tomb of Qummus Hinain, whereas the other room has the appearance of a rubbish-bin. Several tombs are situated within the western part of the building.

The second church is dedicated to St. Palamon. Built in 1925, it was renovated in 1940. The church is decorated with numerous modern Byzantine wall paintings showing Biblical scenes. The church has altogether five haikals which are dedicated, from north to south, to St. Gregory (Ghargarius), St. Palamon, St. Antony, St. Mercurius, St. Dimianah.

The third church, dedicated to St. Dimianah, is no doubt the most ancient building of the monastery. It is situated about 1.50 m. below the level of the rest of the monastery. The church has one haikal, the screen of which, however, is modern (1907).

In the south-west corner of the enclosure is a necropolis which has twelve tombs. Three tombs are situated on the south side of the monastery yard. The monastery was built upon an ancient Christian site, though the buildings have undergone several transformations.

St. Palamon, a hermit of Upper Egypt, lived during the reign of St. Constantine. He was the leader of a group of ascetics when St. Pachomius joined his group. After having been St. Palamon's disciple, St. Pachomius left St. Palamon in order to found a community of his own at Tabennesi which was near by. St. Palamon is said to have died as a result of his excessive fasting. A mulid is annually observed at the Monastery of St. Palamon on February 7th in honour of the Saint.

In the beginning of the 15th century, we hear of a Qummus Murqus, hegoumenos of the Monastery of St. Palamon who experienced a vision pertaining to the translation of the relics of St. George to the Church of St. George in Old Cairo.

## THE MONASTERY OF THE ANGEL AT AL-DÂBBA

Situated about one kilometre west of the Monastery of St. Palamon is the Monastery of the Angel (Dair al-Malak), on the east side of the

village of al-Dabba. The monastery is built in the same style as the Monastery of St. Palamon, especially so far as its main dome is concerned.

The monastery serves now two purposes. It comprises the church and the residence of the priest of the adjacent village of al-Dâbba.

#### THE CAVE OF ST. PALAMON

Between the Monastery of St. Palamon and the Monastery of the Angel stretches a little isolated desert which was the site of the first monastic endeavours of St. Palamon. About 300 metres from Dair al-Malak in a little wadi, there are in a rock two cavities which are almost completely obstructed by rubbish, which according to tradition, are supposed to have been a hermitage.

In this immediate vicinity, though near the cliff of the Gebel at-Tarif, the famous Gnostic papyri of Chenoboskion were discovered. The Coptic priest of Dair al-Malak was one of the first persons to have handled this precious treasure. This library was hidden in a cemetery and belongs to the 5th century, the time when the Pachomian monasteries finally extended their influence throughout this region.

Lit.: Lefort, L. Th., Les Vies de S. Pachôme et de ses premiers successeurs. Louvain, 1943.

Lefort, L. Th., «Les premiers monastères Pachomiens», Muséon, LII. Doresse, J., The Secret Books of the Egyptian Gnostics. London, 1960.

THE RUINS OF THE BASILICA OF ST. PACHOMIUS AT FAU AL-KIBLI

Travelling from Kasr as-Sayâd on the road to Luxor, the tourist will pass after about ten kilometres on his right the village of Fau al-Bahri, the Fau of the north, situated on the banks of the Nile. Another three and half kilometres further on, and one approaches the village of Fau al-Kibli, the Fau of the south, situated on the left side of the road, and partly hidden in a palm-grove. All that can be seen of the once famous basilica are several broken columns and socles west of the village of Fau al-Kibli.

Fau al-Kihli with its ruins of the famous Basilica of St. Pachomius is situated about 3 km. north of Tabennese. Fau or Phow (Coptic) is an Bulletin, t. XXXV.

ancient Christian site. In the 5th century, the famous Basilica of St. Pachomius attracted pilgrims from all over Egypt. Abû Sâlih (13th cent.) still refers to the church and monastery of St. Pachomius and mentions that this church is large and spacious, being one hundred and fifty cubits long and seventy-five cubits broad. By the 13th cent., however, the basilica had fallen into ruin. The ruins were visited by Jullien (1901), Massignon (1910) and Lefort (1937).

Lit: Massignon, cf. Bulletin Inst. franç. d'archéol. orient., IX (1911), 89.

#### THE RUINS OF THE BASILICA OF DENDERAH

A short distance from the river, on the west bank, a little to the north of the village of Denderah, near Qena, stands the Temple of Denderah, where the goddess Hathor was worshipped. The basilica was built in the immediate vicinity of the Mammesium or the «house of giving birth», which was built by Caesar Augustus.

The basilica, constructed of unusually good masonry, is built of sandstone, taken undoubtedly from the Mammesium. The carved details of the ruins correspond in many ways to those discovered at the White and Red Monastery at Sôhâg. Only of the western and northern parts are there any remains.

The town of Denderah was built by one of the daughters of the Copts in the days of Manfa'us. Abû Sâlih mentions that there was a well, square in form, the opening of which measured one hundred cubits on each side.

Lit.: Lefort, L. Th., «Les premiers monastères Pachomiens», Le Muséon, LII, 9-12.

Ladeuze, P., Étude sur le cénobitisme Pakhomien pendant le IV° siècle et la première moitié du V°. Löwen, 1898.

#### THE MONASTERY OF ST. MERCURIUS IN HIGAZA

The Monastery of St. Mercurius (Dair Abû-s-Saifain) is situated in the eastern part of the village of Higâza on the very edge of the desert. To visit the monastery, it is advisable to proceed from Qus in south-easterly direction via al-Ma'arri to Higâza, a distance of approximately 12 km. The key to the monastery, which is uninhabited, is with the umdah of the village. One enters the monastery, which is enclosed by a wall, through

a gate on the west side. After entering the enclosure, there is to the south a small gate-house, to the north a cemetery. East of the gate-house is a small inner court with the monastery well.

In the centre of the monastery, there is the Church of St. Mercurius, which is still used on Sundays for the Celebration of the Divine Liturgy. According to a local oral tradition, the church was built by St. Helena in the 4th century. The Church of St. Mercurius has three haikals which are dedicated to St. Pachomius (north), St. Mercurius (centre) and St. George (south). The haikal-screen is adorned with an icon of St. Mercurius. The baptistery is situated in the south-western corner of the church. The church is 13 m. (east-west) by 10 m. (north-south), and was restored in 1911.

East of the Church of St. Mercurius there is a second inner court which leads to the Church of the Holy Virgin, which has three haikals. The church is not in use. In the north-eastern part of the monastery there is the Church of St. Bidaba, which also is not in use. Adjoining the former church, is the Church of St. Victor (Mari Bûqtûr) with its three haikals. This church was recently restored. The churches of the Holy Virgin, St. Bidaba and St. Victor are of similar structural design.

In general, the monastery is in good condition.

## THE MONASTERY OF ST. PACHOMIUS AT MEDÂMÛT NEAR LUXOR

The Monastery of St. Pachomius or the Dair Anbâ Bakhûm is situated on the edge of the desert about eight kilometres north-east of the ruins of the Temple of Karnak, not far from Luxor airport. The Church of St. Pachomius, which has five haikals, is located in a rectangular enclosure of considerable size. The main entrance to the church is through the northern gate of the walls and then passing through the church-yard. The women, however, have their own entrance from the south side of the church. The gynaikion is the southernmost part of the church, in which also the baptistery is situated. The lighting of the church is entirely by little holes in the domes. The church is built of burnt brick, but parts of the interior are plastered, except the domes.

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The central haikal has a wooden canopy, which is worked into an octogan above. It belongs to the 19th century. In the southern part of the church are the tombs of two bishops of Luxor, and that of a priest. The monastery is inhabited by several Coptic families.

Lit.: Johann Georg, Neue Streifzüge durch die Kirchen und Klöster Ägyptens. Berlin, 1930.

CLARKE, S., Christian Antiquities in the Nile Valley. Oxford, 1912.

# 5. THE DESERT MONASTERIES BETWEEN NAQÂDA AND QAMÛLA

The six monasteries which are situated on the edge of the ancient desert of Gebel al-Asas, on the west bank of the Nile between the villages of Naqada and Qamula are of interest only to the archaeologist or student of Christian antiquities.

At one time, this desert was inhabited by famous anchorites like Elias of Mount Bishouaou and Samuel of Mount Banhadab. In the 13th century, there were numerous churches and monasteries around Qamula. The most famous being the Churches of St. Theodore, St. Mercurius, St. George and St. Victor. There were also the two Churches of St. Sinuthius and St. John Abû Qarqâs and the Monasteries of St. Nub and St. Theodore. To-day, however, all monasteries are deserted.

The monasteries can be reached by car, preferably by donkey, from Thebes. Visitors ought to make sure in advance that the taxi driver or guide is familiar with the region of Naqâda, Danfîq and al-Ausat Qamûla and al-Qibli Qamûla. Travelling from Thebes (west bank), one might visit the monasteries in the following order: The Monastery of St. Michael near al-Qibli Qamûla, the Monastery of St. Victor near al-Ausat Qamûla, the Monastery of St. George west of al-Bahri Qamûla, the Monastery of as-Salîb and the Monastery of Abû 'l-Lîf near Hagar Danfîq and the Monastery of St. Michael at Abd al-Rahman Khalîl, 4 km. south-west of Naqâda. All monasteries are situated on the edge of the desert, i.e. none of the monasteries is situated further than one km. in the desert.

In addition to the desert monasteries, there is near Qamûla the famous Church of St. Mercurius which claims the tomb of the Patron. A large mulid is held annually on August 1 in commemoration of the dedication of the Church of St. Mercurius.

Lit.: Legrain, G., «Abou Seifein et les fous», La Revue Égyptienne, I, 9, Sept. 5, 1912, 257-263.

#### THE MONASTERY OF ST. MICHAEL NEAR AL-QIBLI QAMULA

The Monastery of St. Michael, or Dair Malak Mikhail, is the southern-most monastery of the monastery group situated between Qamûla and Naqâda. To visit the monastery, the tourist is advised to hire a taxi in Thebes and to travel for 12 km. in northerly direction to the village of Qamûla, and turn to the west at the tall Sycamore tree. The monastery is situated about 1 km. west of the edge of the desert. It is enclosed by crude brick walls, and the humble domes of the churches rise like inverted cups above it. No key is required to enter the monastery. The visitor should pay attention to the large well which was once used as a sakyeh. Many Christian tombs are situated to the south and east of the monastery.

Abû Sâlih (13th cent.) records that this monastery was also known as the Monastery of the Well, because of the excellent water of its well. The monastery contained a keep, and was surrounded by enclosing walls, and it is said to have possessed the body of St. Pisentius, the hegoumenos of the monasteries of Upper Egypt.

The monastery is entered through a gate in the east wall. There are two churches in the monastery, both of which are sadly ruined. In the southern church one can still identify three haikals. The northern church is entirely ruined and much imagination is required to reconstruct it. It would seem that this church also had three haikals. Of the two churches, the northern one is apparently the more recent. A few fragments of stone with hieroglyphs were taken from some ancient temple. For those interested in early Christian architecture, a visit to the Monastery of St. Michael would certainly prove to be of interest.

THE MONASTERY OF ST. VICTOR NEAR AL-AUSAT QAMULA

About 2 km. north of the Monastery of St. Michael, and 1 km. northwest of the village of al-Ausat Qamûla, there is situated the Monastery

of St. Victor or the Dair Mari Bûqtûr. The monastery can be reached either by taxi, or preferably by donkey. The monastery, enclosed by a wall, stands upon an elevation from which one has a panoramic view across the Nile Valley. One should pay attention to the deep well on the south side of the new brick church. West of the monastery, there are many tombs.

The outer court of the monastery is entered through a gate in the east wall. In the south-western corner of the court is the tomb of Basilius Ghali (1938). The ancient church, built of mud bricks, has four haikals which are dedicated to St. Victor, St. Michael, the Blessed Virgin Mary, and St. Menas. The wall-paintings in the haikals have almost entirely disappeared. Situated south of the monastery, there is the new Church of St. Victor with its entrance facing to the west. Note the Coptic cross above the entrance. The key to the new church can be obtained from the Coptic priest in Qamûla.

The monastery was rarely visited by Western pilgrims. Wansleben (1664) refers briefly to the monastery.

THE MONASTERY OF ST. GEORGE NEAR AL-BAHRI QAMÛLA

The Monastery of St. George or the Dair Mari Girgis, known also as the Dair al-Magma, west of al-Bahri Qamûla, is situated about 500 metres west of the edge of the desert on a slight elevation. It is the largest and most significant one of the monasteries between Qamûla and Naqâda. On certain occasions, Divine Services are conducted in the monastery.

The monastery, which is enclosed by a high wall, consists of a group of four churches, three of which are attached to each other, the fourth one standing by itself, west of the others and more or less ruined in the debris of the surrounding buildings. The entrance to the monastery is through a gate in the north wall. The three churches standing together are dedicated to St. Michael (northern church), St. George (central church), and St. John (southern church). All three churches differ considerably in their construction and were built at different times.

The Church of St. Michael is entered through a hole in the north wall of the nave of the adjoining Church of St. George. The main apse (furthest to the north) was decorated with beautiful wall-paintings representing Christ surrounded by angels, which unfortunately are sadly ruined.

The Church of St. George is of the basilican type, though ruined. The wall-paintings which once adorned the haikal are also largely destroyed. South of the Church of St. George is the Church of St. John which belongs to a later period than the other two churches. This church has been entirely rebuilt. In the narthex of this church is a tank sunk below the level of the floor, which was probably used at one time for the Service of the Blessing of the Water on the Feast of the Epiphany. A few metres south of the church was a large well which was used as the sakyeh. A small church, dedicated to the Blessed Virgin Mary, is sadly ruined. It is situated between the Church of St. George and the ruined cells in the western part of the monastery.

#### THE MONASTERY OF THE HOLY CROSS AT HAGAR DANFIQ

Situated exactly on the edge of the desert in the small village of Hagar Danfiq is the small Monastery of the Holy Cross or the Dair as-Salib. In order to visit the monastery, it is advisable to obtain permission to visit the church from the Coptic priest in Naqada, though the key to the monastery is with the boab in Hagar Danfiq. One enters the monastery through a gate in the north wall.

The monastery has two churches. The ancient church, situated in the western part of the monastery, is in a state of ruin. This church must be considered of great antiquity. Hieroglyphs on the columns suggest that some of the building material was taken from a Pharaonic temple. The monastery was demolished in 1917.

The new church, situated in the eastern part of the monastery, has three haikals and is adorned with several modern and artistically inferior wall-paintings. Occasionally, the church is used for the celebration of the Divine Liturgy.

Lit.: Comtes-Rendus du Comité de Conservation des Monum. de l'art ar., XXXII, 527. Monneret de Villard, Les Couvents près de Sôhâg. Milan, 1927. Fig 97.

# THE MONASTERY OF ABO 'L-LOF AT HAGAR DANFO

The Monastery of Abû 'l-Lîf (Father of the white beard) is situated in the village of Hagar Danfîq about 50 metres east of the Monastery of the Holy Cross. The key to this monastery is with the Coptic priest in Naqâda. One enters the monastery through a gate in the north

wall. The new church is situated in the eastern part of the monastery, whereas the ancient church, which is sadly ruined, is situated in the southern part of the monastery.

## THE MONASTERY OF St. MICHAEL NEAR NAQADA

The Monastery of St. Michael or Dair Malak Mikhail, which is situated about 4 km. south-west of Naqâda, is surrounded by a large desert necropolis which extends especially north of the monastery. In order to enter the Church of St. Michael, the visitor should obtain the key from the Coptic priest in Naqâda. The monastery, which is situated on a slight elevation, can be entered through gates in the northern and southern walls. The Church of St. Michael is situated in the eastern part of the enclosure and is roofed with numerous domes. Another church, though completely ruined, is situated in the south-west corner of the enclosure.

About 50 metres north of the monastery is a new church with one haikal. This church, which is not finished, is not locked.

Lit. : Doresse, J., « Saints coptes de Haute-Égypte ; les monastères de Djêmeh à Benhadab aux alentours du VI° siècle ». Journal Asiatique, 1948, 247-270.

# 6. THE CHURCHES AND MONASTERIES OF THEBES

The visitor to the Pharaonic necropolis of Thebes on the west bank of the Nile, opposite to Luxor, should note that, from the 4th to the 7th century, many of the Pharaonic buildings and tombs were used by Christians either as dwellings for monks and anchorites, or as churches. At Thebes, as throughout the Nile Valley, all varieties of Coptic asceticism appear to have flourished. There were the Pachomian coenobitic communities on the one hand, and the solitaries living with one or several disciples in some tomb or cave on the other hand. The discoveries of Coptic documents, mummies and graffiti substantiate that sizable Christian communities inhabited Thebes.

# MEDINET HABU

The centre of the Christian community of Thebes was the town of Jeme which may have extended from Dair al-Medinah to Medinet Habu.

With the end of paganism, and before the Temple of Medinet Habu was buried in the sand, a church called by some the Cathedral of St. Athanasius, was built within the second court of the Temple of Ramses III. On the columns of the church many Christians scribbled their names, while others wrote short prayers. The remains of the church, however, have been cleared away in 1895 by the Service des Antiquités.

#### DAIR AR-RUMI

Up on the hill which divides the Valley of the Queens into two branches, there are the remains of a small monastery, known to some as the Dair ar-Rumi.

#### DAIR AL-MEDINAH

More important than the settlement in the Valley of the Queens was the Dair al-Medinah. The little Ptolemaic Temple, begun by Ptolemy IV, now called Dair al-Medinah, owes its name to a Christian monastery, the church of which may have been dedicated to St. Isidorus, of whom, however, very little is known. The mutilation of many of the inscriptions and reliefs in the temple is also due to the monks who used the temple as a monastery.

#### DAIR AL-BAHRI

One of the most splendid temples of Thebes is the Temple of Queen Hatshepsut at Dair al-Bahri or the Northern Monastery. This temple was built by Queen Hatshepsut, the sister, wife, and co-regent of Thutmosis III. Christian monks settled here on the Upper Terrace. To-day, all traces of the monastery, situated at one time in the large Hypostyle Hall of the Upper Terrace, are cleared away. The monastery had a square brick tower nearly 8 metres high, and the buildings were of mud bricks and stones taken from the 18th Dynasty walls.

## THE MONASTERIES OF SS. CYRIACUS AND EPIPHANIUS

The Monastery of Cyriacus extended roughly from tomb 65 (Nebamon) to tomb 67 (Hapuseneb) of the Noblemen's Tombs, on the eastern slope of the hill Sheikh Abd al-Kurnah. From the Monastery of Cyriacus

one can easily reach the Monastery of Epiphanius which is situated about 20 metres above the road to the Dair al-Bahri.

The Monastery of Epiphanius which was excavated in 1912 by the Metropolitan Museum of Art Egyptian Expedition was built on the site of the 11th Dynasty tomb of the Vizier Daga, about 400 metres south of Dair al-Bahri. Only few remains of the monastery can be seen today. The monastery is first mentioned in a will of the 7th century monks Jacob and Elias.

#### THE MONASTERY OF PHOEBAMMON

The Monastery of Phoebammon, excavated in 1948 by the Coptic Archaeological Society, is situated about 8 km. west of the Valley of the Queens. It can be reached only with considerable difficulty, by crossing the desert of al-Kola al-Hamra, and it is absolutely necessary to employ the services of a competent guide. This monastery, possibly of the 4th century, which was built, presumably with one or two floors against the mountain cliffs, yielded a wealth of Coptic graffiti. This monastery would be of interest only to archaeologists or Coptologists.

#### OTHER HERMITAGES

Other Christian monasteries and cells of anchorites existed on the hillstop of Kurnet Murrat, in the Ramesseum, and on the hillside of Sheikh Abd al-Kurneh. Of special interest to the visitor of the Christian sites in Thebes is the Tomb of Ramses IV (No. 2) which is one of the finest examples of the royal tombs of the 20th Dynasty.

This tomb shows the most evident signs of actual occupation by early Christian anchorites, as seen by the large number of Coptic graffiti which are scribbled all over the walls, including a number of Coptic inscriptions written in red paint. One of the drawings of the two praying saints with arms upraised, is Apa Ammonius the Martyr, probably the bishop of Esna. Another anchorite has drawn up a list of seven famous Coptic hermits: Apa Paul, Apa Antony, Apa Pahomo, Apa Palamon, Apa Petronius, Apa Theodore, Apa Horsiese. On the left wall there is a Coptic cross.

Directly across from Tomb 2 there is the intended Tomb of Ramses III (No. 3). Though graffiti and Corinthian capitals were seen there in

the past, today, the tomb is blocked up, and no Christian remains are visible. The Tomb of Ramses VI (No. 9) contains a number of Coptic and Greek graffiti.

In order to derive the full benefit of a visit to Christian Thebes, it is advisable to make sure in advance that the dragoman is familiar not only with the Pharaonic but also with the Christian sites of Thebes.

Lit.: WINLOCK, H. E. and CRUM, W. E., Evelyn-White, The Monastery of Epiphanius at Thebes, I, II, New York, 1926.

Mirrit Boutros Ghall Bey, Note sur la découverte du monastère de Phæbammon dans la montagne thébaine. Le Caire, 1948.

BACHATLY, CH., Le Monastère de Phæbammon dans la Thébaïde. Cairo, 1963.

# 7. THE CHRISTIAN CHURCHES IN THE TEMPLES IN AND AROUND LUXOR

THE CHURCH IN THE TEMPLE OF LUXOR

The temple of Luxor was built by Amenophis III (18th dynasty) on the site of an older sanctuary of sandstone, and was dedicated to Amon, Mut and Khons. During the religious revolution of Amenophis IV, the representations and the name of Amon were obliterated, and a sanctuary of the sun was built beside it. Following the introduction of Christianity, parts of the temple were converted into a church.

The Christian church is approached through the Pronaos or Vestibule of the temple. To the left stands an Altar which is dedicated to the Emperor Constantine with a Latin inscription. Adjoining the rear wall are two chapels, which are dedicated to Mut and Khons. A door in the centre of the rear wall gives access to a smaller hall which originally had eight columns and which served as a Christian church.

In the niche one can discover the remains of wall-paintings. Unfortunately, they are in such a mutilated state that it is impossible to reconstruct the themes. On the right hand of the apse are three persons, in the apse one can still identify two heads. On the southern wall there are two rows of paintings, though again it is impossible to come to any conclusion as to their identification.

The wall-paintings may belong to the end of the 4th century. Their destruction took place in the latter part of the 19th century.

Numerous stones from the Temple of Luxor which are decorated with crosses and Coptic inscriptions are stored in the magazine on the east side of the Temple.

#### THE CHURCH IN THE TEMPLE OF KARNAK

The ruins of the great Temple at Karnak are perhaps the most wonderful of any in Egypt, and they certainly merit many visits from the tourist or student. The visitor to the ancient Christian church in the Temple of Karnak will pass through the Great Court, the Great Hypostyle Hall, and then through the Central Court, the courts of Thutmosis I and Amenophis II and Thutmosis III to the remains of the Temple of the Middle Kingdom. From here, one enters the Great Festal Hall of Thutmosis III where in the 4th century the Christians established a church.

In the Festal Hall of Thutmosis III, the paintings of saints can be clearly identified on six columns, for the heads of these figures are relatively well preserved. The space between the central columns was used for worship purposes. Unfortunately, it is impossible to reconstruct the ancient church.

# THE CHURCH IN THE TEMPLE OF MEDÂMÛT

Travelling from Luxor in northerly direction, the visitor passes, just beyond the Temple of Karnak, the village of Medâmût. The Temple of Menthu is situated at the outskirts of the village. It was founded by Amenhotep II (18th dynasty).

A small church was built into the temple of which the ruins are still traceable. The church must have had three naves, and the remains of the pillars can still be identified. As in the case of the churches in the temples of Luxor and Karnak, this church ought to be assigned to the 4th or 5th century.

## THE CHURCH IN THE TEMPLE OF TOD

The student of Christian archaeology and architecture may want to visit the Temple at Tôd. The village of Tôd, the ancient Tuphium,

is situated 25 km. south of Luxor, on the east bank of the Nile opposite Armant. The temple belongs to the 5th dynasty, but was reconstructed in the 11th dynasty. The temple is dedicated to Mont.

The church is situated in the north-eastern corner of the large temple area. Apart from the apse, which is relatively well preserved, numerous stones with Coptic decorations have been discovered.

The church was destroyed in the Middle Ages. Later, another church was built on the edge of the desert. The Church is dedicated to St. Abshai. The Christian cemetery in the immediate vicinity was explored by Maspero where the corpse of a bishop and pieces of his vestments were discovered.

St. Abshai al-Qabrin was a devout ascete of Tôd. He is said to have read through the whole book of Jeremiah, and when he had finished, Jeremiah appeared and embraced him.

# 8. THE CHURCHES AND MONASTERIES BETWEEN LUXOR AND ASWÂN

THE MONASTERY OF ST. THEODORE THE WARRIOR NEAR MEDINET HABU

The Monastery of St. Theodore the Warrior (Dair Shahid Tâdrus al-Mahâreb) is situated about 500 metres south-west of the Temple of Medinet Habu (Thebes) in the desert. The monastery, therefore, is easily accessible, and it is well known to taxi-drivers and guides. The key to the monastery should be obtained from the Coptic priest in Aiyub al-Dighelm near Medinet Habu.

After entering the monastery, one passes through a small court-yard to the church. The Church of St. Theodore is divided into five sections from east to west, the most eastern being the haikals, the most western being the relatively new gynaikion. The church has four haikals which are dedicated from north to south to the Blessed Virgin Mary, St. Claudius, St. Theodore and St. Michael. The haikal screens are adorned with modern religious pictures. The roof consists of 17 domes which rest upon arches. The church is lighted through small holes in the domes. The baptistery is situated at the southern end of the church.

St. Theodore is one of the most popular Egyptian warrior-saints. His biography is written in an Encomium by St. Gregory of Nyssa. According to Coptic tradition, St. Theodore was a general. In Euchaites, Persia, he fought and defeated a dragon. The Saint was tortured and suffered martyrdom during the Diocletian persecution.

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#### THE MONASTERY OF THE WATER-WHEEL

The Monastery of the Water-wheel or the Dair as-Saqieh is situated 15 km. north of Armant in a large wadi which opens out into a stony desert. At the foot of a high cliff which bends over the remains of the monastic buildings is an impressive rectangular enclosure of 60 m. by 80 m. In the midst of this enclosure on a rock there rise the remains of buildings of crude bricks. At the foot of the cliffs are two caves, and in front of them the church was built. The remains of small columns and capitals substantiate this.

One approaches this site by a path of large stone steps. At another place, where the cliff is less abrupt, some buildings have stories which cling to parts of the rock. In the most unincumbert part of this vast enclosure is a deep hole which marks the site of a well and a water-wheel. At the bottom of another excavation is an enourmous antique capital. Here and there one recognizes the remains of out-buildings with a pebble pavement. Broken stelae mark the site of the ancient cemetery. Everywhere there are remains of potsherds, painted plates and vases.

This monastery is similar in many ways to the Monastery of St. Phoebam-mon.

Lit.: Doresse, J., «Monastères Coptes aux environs d'Armant en Thébaïde», Analecta Bollandiana, LXVII, 327-349.

# THE RUINS OF THE MONASTERIES NEAR ARMANT

The region around the town of Armant was one of the prominent monastic centres. Significant collections of Christian papyri and ostraka have come from this area, and many Christian stelae which are now exhibited in the various museums have their origin in this general area.

# THE DISTANT MONASTERY

About 10 kilometres north-east of Armant in the desert is situated a late Roman temple dedicated to the gods Amon and Mont. This building is known today as the Distant Monastery or the Dair as-Shelouit. Whether this was actually a monastery or not is difficult to determine.

There is no question, however, that this site was once inhabited by Christians. Remains of crude bricks still emerge from the sand and the flat roof of the temple is covered with Christian graffiti and drawings.

#### THE MONASTERY OF AL-MISEIKRA

About 9 kilometres north-west of Armant in the stony desert is a vast field of ruins, which is known as the Dair al-Miseikra or the Dair an-Namous. From the rubbish heaps there emerge the remains of several large buildings, some of which had more than one story. The crude brick walls are pierced with little ogival windows. Here and there one discovers a capital. Near by are the remains of a large cemetery from which many of the stelae came which are now in museums.

#### THE MONASTERY OF THE CHRISTIANS

A short distance to the north (one kilometre) of Dair al-Miseikra are the ruined walls of a square tower of several stories surrounded by the remains of enclosure walls. These ruins are situated on the slope of a hill. The Monastery of the Christians or the Dair an-Nasâra may have been considered as a stage between the cultivated land and the hermitages of the inner desert. West of the Dair an-Nasâra are the remains of the Monastery of St. Posidonius and numerous hermitages.

#### THE BURIED MONASTERY

Ten kilometres west of Armant is a large mound with the remains of several buildings. This site was at one time a large monastery. The walls are of crude bricks which are pierced with little ogival windows. The ground is covered with debris and potsherds as well as fragments of glass. These ruins are also known as the White Monastery or the Dair al-Abiad.

#### THE RUINS OF THE CHURCH IN ARMANT

From the 4th century until the early middle ages, Armant was the centre of a large administrative area and the seat of a bishop. The Church of Armant, of which only the ruined red granite columns now remain,

was one of the finest and largest churches in Egypt. The Church is situated just outside the temple area, opposite the school.

In the Coptic Synaxarium, this ancient church is referred to as the Church al-Gishoutah, and Abû Sâlih (13th cent.) mentions in Armant the Church of the Holy Virgin. When an altar was consecrated here in 1084-85 A.D., some fragments of the vessels which had contained the water of consecration were taken and thrown into the well within the church.

There is no doubt, that many other churches existed in the town, and the neighbouring desert was a hive of monks. The best known monasteries in the immediate vicinity of Armant were the Dair Anbâ Darîûs and the Dair Anbâ Ezechiel.

The 4th century Christian town of Armant was excavated in 1935-1937. The buildings were of a rather poor construction, but even from them it was evident that some ancient Egyptian customs had survived, notably the footbath inside the door of the house.

Lit.: Mond and Myers, The Bucheum, I, II, III, 1934; Cemeteries of Armant, I (2 vols.), 1937; Temples of Armant, I, II, 1940. Winkler, H. A., Rock Drawings of Southern Upper Egypt, I, II, 1938-39. Pococke, A Description of the East. Vol. I, London 1743. Jomand, Description de l'Égypte. Antiq. I, 15-16.

# THE MONASTERY OF ST. ABSHAI AT TOD

The Monastery of St. Abshai (Dair Anbâ Ibshai) is situated in the eastern part of the village of Tôd, at the edge of the desert. Tôd, known on account of its temple, is situated 25 km. south of Luxor. The monastery, which lies on the summit of a small elevation, is noteworthy because of some thirty inscribed blocks of stone which were used in the construction of the monastery. These stones, at one time, belonged to the Temple of Thutmosis III.

The older part of the monastery with its several domes was built on the plan of a square. Later, however, the monastery was enlarged.

The monastery is dedicated to St. Abshai, who was an ascete of Tôd.

Lit.: Vercoutter, J., «Le Dair Copte de Tod et les 'Remplois' de Thoutmosis III», Annales du Service des Antiquités, XLVII, 217-222.

#### THE MONASTERY OF ST. GEORGE AT DIMUGRAT

Those travelling from Luxor (Thebes) to Esna on the west bank of the Nile, may wish to stop at the village of Dimuqrat (half way between Luxor and Esna) to visit the Monastery of St. George (Dair Mari Girgis). The monastery is situated 4 km. west of Dimuqrat on the edge of the desert. Those who intend to visit the monastery should obtain the key from the janitor (boab) in Dimuqrat. The monastery can be easily reached by car. A wall (2 m. high) encloses the five feddan (about 5 acres) court-yard.

The Church of St. George with its 21 domes and six haikals is an impressive structure.

In the north-eastern part of the church there are two rooms for the Bishop of Luxor when he visits the monastery at the annual mulid which is held from November 10th-16th. Every year, thousands of pilgrims attend this great feast commemorating the consecration of the Church of St. George.

The six haikals of the Church of St. George are dedicated to St. Pachomius, St. Mercurius, the Blessed Virgin Mary, St. George, St. Paul the Theban, and St. Michael. The new haikal screen (1960) is adorned with cheap, printed religious pictures. The baptistery is situated in the north-west corner of the church. The gynaikion is in the western part of the church.

#### THE MONASTERY OF ST. MATTHEW THE POTTER NEAR ASFUN

Travelling along the west bank of the Nile from Thebes southwards to Esna, the tourist passes the village of Asfun, which is about 12 km. north of Esna. From Asfun the Monastery of St. Matthew the Potter (Dair al-Fakhuri) can be reached either by jeep or by donkey. The key to the monastery should be obtained from the Coptic priest in Esna. The distance from Asfun to the monastery is about 7 km. The monastery, which is enclosed by a high wall, is situated in the desert. In front of the monastery there are several Christian tombs which are interesting because of their picturesque cupolas and crosses. These tombs are said to belong to the 14th and 15th century.

The monastery may well have been built around the 6th or 7th century.

In the 10th century the monastery was destroyed by the Arabs, though

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THE COPTIC MONUMENTS

shortly afterwards it was rebuilt. Abû Sâlih (13th cent.) briefly mentions the Church of St. Matthew the Potter and al-Maqrîzî (15th cent.) writes: «At Asfun there was a large monastery, and Asfun was one of the finest towns in Egypt, and the monks of the monastery there were famous for their learning and intelligence. With Asfun, its monastery was also destroyed, and this was the most remote of the monasteries in Upper Egypt.»

The beautiful wall-paintings in the Church of St. Matthew the Potter are considered to be from the 11th to 13th century. They represent Christ and the Twelve Apostles as well as other Saints. The angles of the church are adorned with paintings of the Seraphim and Saints. The church has three haikals. The tomb of St. Matthew the Potter is situated in the church. According to tradition, this Saint was buried in a clay casket.

St. Matthew the Potter was a native of Bishnai. He became a monk in the Church of the Holy Virgin of al-Maqbabat, and later went to Esna, and from there to Asfun, where he founded the above mentioned monastery. Many miracles are related of him.

#### THE MONASTERY OF THE GREEK NEAR ESNA

About four kilometres north of Esna, on the eastern bank of the Nile, is the village of ad-Dair. This village takes its name from an ancient Coptic monastery, the site of which is still marked by a saqieh and some ruined walls of burnt brick.

The student of Christian archaeology should ask for Ezbet Hamadiya, south of the village of ad-Dair. A little north of Ezbet Hamadiya is the Ezbet Hamidiya, west of which is the site of the ruins of the Monastery of the Greek, known also as the Dair ar-Rumaniya. The site of the monastery is known as the Ezbet Mahmud.

About five kilometres north of Ezbet Hamadiya is the village of Hamadat with the railway station of Matana.

Lit.: PALANQUE, Ch., « Rapport sur les fouilles d'El Der ». Bull. Inst. Franç. Arch. Orient. II, 163-170.

#### THE MONASTERY OF THE HOLY MARTYRS AT ESNA

Esna, known to the Ancient Egyptians as Sent and to the Greeks as Latopolis, has been the home of Christian monks and anchorites from the 4th century onwards. Coptic records frequently refer to monks who lived in and around Esna. In the reign of Decius (249-251 A.D.),

the last of the Roman emperors whose name appears on the walls of the Temple of Esna (situated in the middle of the town), it was decreed that every Christian should offer sacrifices to the Roman gods. Those who complied received certificates from the magistrates, while those who refused suffered death.

The Monastery of the Three Thousand Six Hundred Holy Martyrs (Dair Manaos wa Shuhada) is situated about 6 km. south-west of Esna on the edge of the desert. One can reach the monastery without difficulty by car from Esna. The monastery, which is enclosed by a wall, contains two churches. The Church of the Blessed Virgin Mary (built about 1931) and the ancient Church of the Holy Martyrs.

The old Church of the Holy Martyrs is, without question, one of the most beautiful churches in Upper Egypt. On one of the wall paintings in the church one finds the date 502 A.M., which is 786 A.D. The consecration of the Church of the Holy Martyrs is mentioned in the Coptic Synaxarium on the 19th of Tubah or January 27th. Because of its alterations and additions, the church can be considered as comprising actually two churches. The three haikals in the eastern part of the church are dedicated, from north to south, to St. George, the Blessed Virgin Mary, and the Holy Martyrs of Esna. To be noted are the numerous well preserved wall-paintings which adorn the Sanctuary of the Holy Martyrs. Two additional haikals are situated in the north-western corner of the church. In addition, five tombs are situated in the church.

The new Church of the Blessed Virgin Mary is situated south of the Church of the Holy Martyrs. The church has three haikals which are dedicated to St. George, the Blessed Virgin Mary and St. Michael. The baptistery is in the south-western corner of the church. The church is decorated with numerous paintings executed in a primitive manner, which are the religious expression of the many pilgrims who annually come to the monastery for the Festival (mulid) of St. Ammonius, Bishop of Esna, on December 23rd.

St. Ammonius was consecrated bishop to the See of Esna by Patriarch Peter I (301-311 A.D.). Tradition asserts that he built the monastery, where he spent from Tuesday to Friday every week, coming back to Esna to spend from Saturday to Monday amongst his people.

A little to the north of the monastery are the ruins of another very ancient monastery which was dedicated to St. Isaac.

Visitors to the monastery should call at the new Church of the Blessed Virgin Mary (1958) in Esna for the key. If no one is there, one should go to the old Church of St. Duladius in Esna. If visitors have to spend a night in Esna, there are two hotels, the Hotel Tawfik al-Ashari and the Hotel Sobhy Ghali.

#### THE MONASTERY OF ST. PACHOMIUS AT EDFU

After having visited the famous Temple of Horus (begun in 237 B.C. by Ptolemy III and completed in 57 B.C.), one may wish to visit the Monastery of St. Pachomius (Dair Anbâ Bakhûm). The monastery is situated on the west bank of the Nile, about 7 km. west of Edfu, on the edge of the desert and on the slope of a hill. It can be easily reached by horse-carriage or donkey from Edfu. The road runs parallel to an irrigation canal. Visitors should obtain the key to the monastery from the Coptic priest at Edfu.

The Monastery of St. Pachomius is surrounded by crude brick walls inside of which is the Church of St. Pachomius. The Church has four haikals which are dedicated, from north to south, to St. Pachomius, the Blessed Virgin Mary, St. Michael, and St. John the Baptist. The baptistery is situated in the south-western corner of the church. The gynaikion is at the westernmost end of the church. The icons which represent St. Pachomius, the Resurrection, the Crucifixion and the Blessed Virgin Mary are of inferior quality.

Should the visitor have to spend a night in Edfu, there are two hotels in the town, the Hotel Ptolemée on the east bank of the Nile, near the railway-station, and the Hotel Semiramis on the west bank of the Nile.

### THE RUINS OF THE MONASTERY AT GEBEL AS-SILSILAH

At Hagar or Gebel as-Silsilah the Nile narrows very much, and at one time it was even believed that a cataract once existed here. The site is of historical interest in so far as the ancient Egyptians quarried here the greater part of the sandstone used by them in the buildings at Thebes, and the names of the kings inscribed in the caves show that these quarries were used from the earliest to the latest periods.

On the west bank, south of the Gebel as-Silsilah, is Kom ar-Resras, with the lower courses of the walls of a small rectangular temple. Almost half a kilometre to the north are the ruins of a Coptic monastery. Between the monastery ruins and the village of Fâris are Roman and Christian cemeteries, which, however, have been plundered.

Another 500 metres north of the Roman cemetery is the village of al-Hammam, the Bath. Al-Hammam may have been a Coptic building, since Coptic graffiti were discovered on the south side of the village.

Gebel as-Silsilah is situated between Edfu and Kom Ombo, about 10 km. south of the railway station of Nag' Kagug.

Lit.: SAYCE, A. H., «Excavations at Gebel Silsila». Annales du Service, VII, 97-106.

#### THE MONASTERY OF MOUNT ISIS AT AL-KOUBANIAH

Those who have read the report of the excavations of the Monastery of Mount Isis by Dr. Hermann Junker (1910-1911) and are interested to visit the site of the ruins should sail from Aswan 12 km. northwards to the village of al-Koubaniah (west bank). One should allow three hours when sailing a feluca. Unfortunately, the excavated ruins are covered again with sand except for two walls and a large amount of potsherds. The foundations of the monastery walls are still visible. The visitor is advised to return to Aswan either by train from al-Khattara or by boat.

Lit.: Junker, H., Das Kloster am Isisberg. Wien, 1922.

# THE MONASTERY NEAR THE TOMB OF KHUNES AT ASWAN

Those who are able to stay longer than a day in Aswan are advised to visit the Tombs of the Nobles which are situated on the west-bank of the Nile, opposite to the northern end of Elephantine Island. On the summit of the cliff which contains the tombs, there is the so-called Qubbet Shaikh Ali Abu al-Hawa, a Muslim tomb. At Aswan we can clearly discern the southern and the northern group of Tombs.

It should be noted, however, that the ascent to these tombs and to the ruins of the monastery is somewhat fatiguing. A small and rather sandy path leads to the southern group of Tombs, the most important to be visited being that of Sirenpowet, son of Satet-hotep, and a nomarch under Amenemhet II (1920 B.C.). From there one passes to the Tomb of Aku which belongs to the same period. A little further on we come to the Tomb of Khunes, inside of which one sees some mud-brick chambers, and some others on the slope beside it. These chambers formed a part of a monastery which is said to have been dedicated to St. George or St. Laurentius. It seems that the Tomb of Khunes was used as a dwelling-place by an anchorite. Perhaps, during his life time or shortly after his death, his disciples settled near the tomb, where they established a church and a monastery. The monastery was built a little above the tomb. Numerous Coptic graffiti and drawings of warrior-saints in red paint, though slightly effaced, can be easily recognized.

Lit.: HABACHE, L., Aswân. Cairo, 1959.

#### THE MONASTERY OF ST. SIMEON AT ASWAN

The Monastery of St. Simeon (Dair Anbâ Samâ'an) is situated on the west bank of the Nile, at about the same height as the southern point of Elephantine Island. The monastery can be reached either by crossing the desert from Qubbet al-Hawa, the Rock-tombs (about 50 minutes), or by sailing across the Nile from Aswân and landing near the Tomb of Aga Khan and then walking up the sandy Wadi al-Qurqur (15 minutes).

The Monastery of St. Simeon was originally dedicated to Anbå Hadra of Aswån. Anbå Hadra married at the age of eighteen, but preserved his chastity, and later became a disciple of St. Baiman. After eight years of ascetic practices under the supervision of his teacher, he retired to the desert and applied himself to the study of the Life of St. Antony. Later he was consecrated Bishop of Aswân by Patriarch Theophilus (385-412 A.D.).

The monastery which was built in the 7th century and reconstructed in the 10th century was destroyed by an expedition sent by Salah ad-Din to Nubia in 1173. In the 13th century, the monastery was in ruin. The oldest Arabic inscription states that a certain Mutammar Ali visited the monastery in the year 694 A.H. or 1295 A.D.

The Monastery of St. Simeon is of considerable architectural interest. and though it is ruined, its main features are well preserved. The monastery is surrounded by a wall, more than six metres high, the lower part of which is built of rough stone, the upper part of mud-bricks. One enters the monastery through the gate of a small tower in the east wall. Within the enclosure are two main groups of buildings. At the lower level lies the church, which consists of a nave, the aisles, the choir and the sacristies. The dome of the choir was adorned with a beautiful Byzantine painting of the Pantocrator with angels on each side, and opposite the choir was another representation of Christ with two angels bowing before him. There are numerous Coptic inscriptions in the sacristies. The monks lived in the northern section of the monastery which is a two-story building. The second story had a large central vaulted hall with cells opening on each side of the long corridor. Each cell had two or more mastabas built of stone for the monks to sleep on. At the north-west angle was the refectory. Below the main building are several rock-hewn cells and a rock chapel with a painted ceiling and pictures of saints. In the monastery were found numerous slabs of stones giving the history of many of the monks. The wine-press, stables, kitchen and other rooms were situated on the southern end of the monastery.

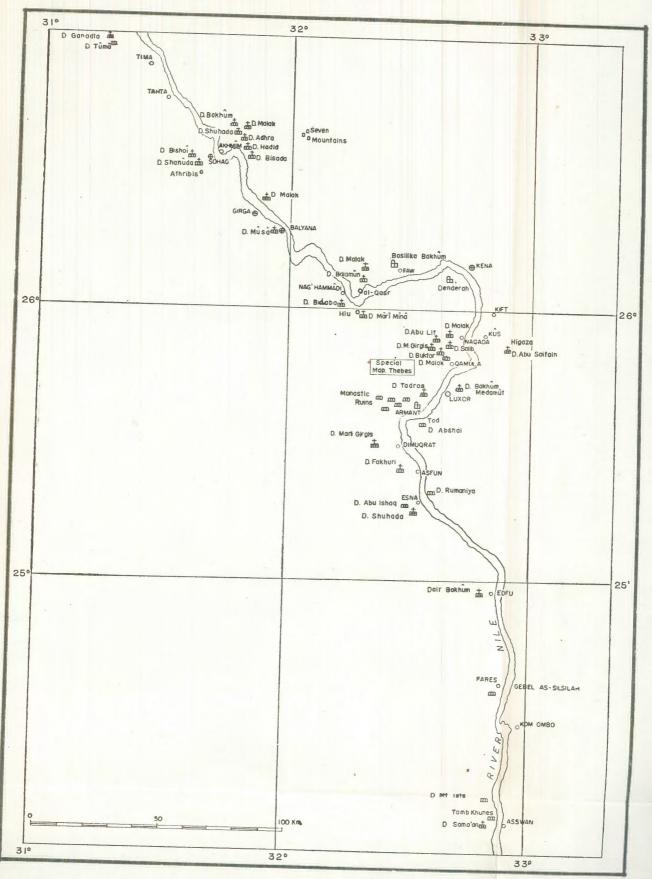
The Church of St. Simeon is still used for occasional services by the Copts of Aswân.

Studies of the Monastery of St. Simeon were made by de Bock, Gayet, De Morgan, Clédat, Clarke and Monneret de Villard.

Lit.: CLARKE, S., Christian Antiquities in the Nile Valley. Oxford, 1912.

Monneret de Villard, «Il Monasterio di Simona», Annales du Service, XXVI,
211-245.

Monneret de Villard, Description Générale du Monastère de St. Siméon de Aswân. Milan, 1927.



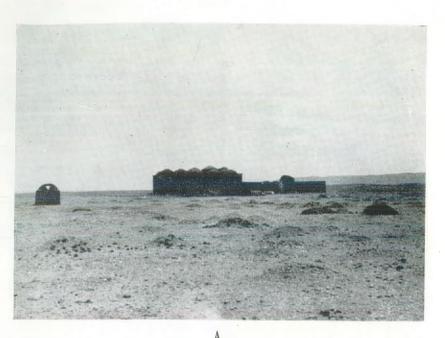
From Meinardus, Atlas of Christian Sites in Egypt. Cairo 1962 with permission of the Société d'Archéologie Copte.



The Monastery of St. Shenute (White Monastery) at Sôhâg.



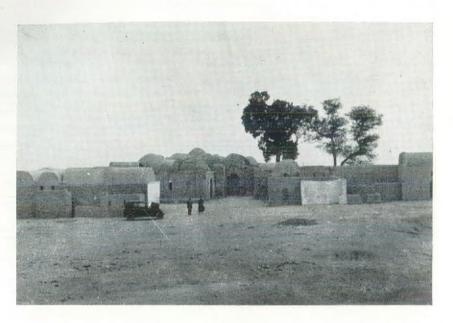
The Monastery of St. Palamon at Kasr as-Sayad.



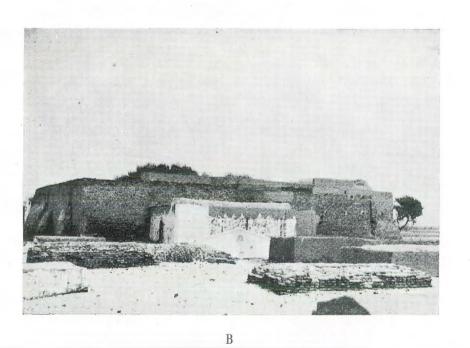
The Monastery of St. Michael near Naqada.



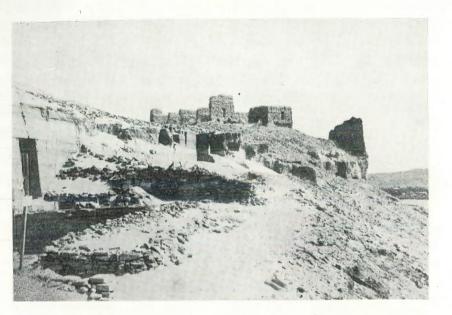
The Monastery of St. Victor near Qamûla.



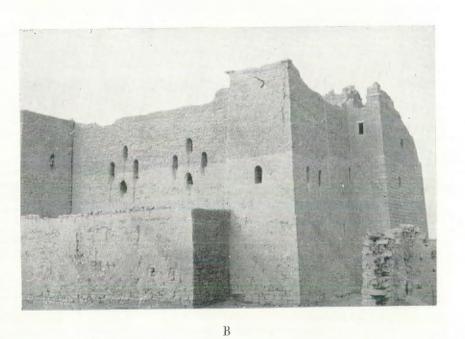
A
The Monastery of St. George at Dimuqrat.



The Monastery of the Holy Martyrs at Esna.



A
The ruins of the Monastery of St. George, north of Aswân.



The Monastery of St. Simeon at Aswân.

# SOCIAL GROUPS IN HIMACHAL PRADESH (1)

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S. D. MISRA

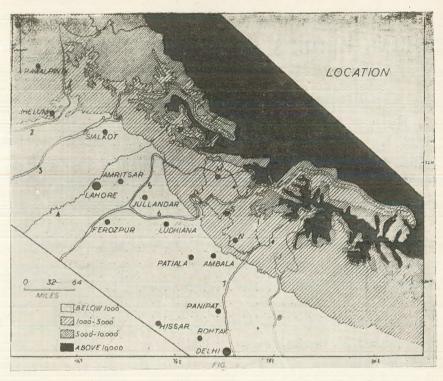
VIKRAM UNIVERSITY, UJJAIN, INDIA.

Himachal Pradesh (2) (30° 22′ 40″/33° 12′ 40″ N—75° 47′ 55″/79° 04′ 20″ E) is an area of transition—physical and cultural. It is an area usually obscured by the use of the general term Him-a-chal (i.e. the skirt of the snows) which does not appear to convey much meaning; for, the whole system, from Kashmir to Assam, is Him-a-chal or Him-a-laya (i.e. the abode of snow). Within this long arc of mountain ranges there are regions within regions differing from one another according to altitude and aspect.

Himachal Pradesh lies roughly between the rivers Jamna and Chenab, and astride both these rivers are the diverse regions of Kumaon and Kashmir respectively (Map 1). The general direction of the ranges within H. P. appears to be in the northwest—southeast direction; beyond Chenab in Kashmir the direction seems to be north-northwest and south-southeast; beyond the Jamna in Kumaon (or the Garhwal district of U. P.) the shift tends to be east-west with practically a uniform east-west trend in Nepal. The river system also varies—from the (more or less) perfect eastwest trend of the Sutlej, to the north-south (in the beginning) and southeast-northwest trend of the Beas, Ravi and Chenab. The climate varies with altitude and aspect—from the duststorms and burning heat of the lower Siwaliks to the eternal snows of the Great Himalayan Ranges. The vegetation varies accordingly—from the poor scrubland and deciduous trees to chil and decidar culminating in the

<sup>(1)</sup> This paper is based on the first hand information collected in the field by the writer for his Ph.D. thesis on Social Geography of Himachal Pradesh of the University of London, 1962.

<sup>(3)</sup> Henceforth H. P.



Map 1

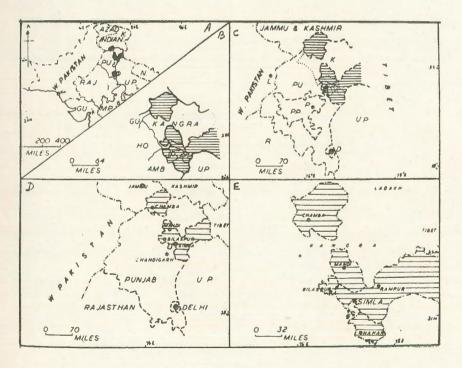
alpine vegetation above 10.000 ft. The area abounds in wild life—from the herbivorous of the lower hills to the carnivorous of the higher hills.

Economically also the area is one of change—most of the population consists of settled agriculturists, with pastoralism and caravan trading becoming progressively more important to the north.

From the social standpoint—there seems to be hardly any period of Indian history—Hindu, Muslim or British—during which the area remained untouched by the events of the plains below. Rajas (kings) and Ranas (other nobles) of legendary fame founded petty kingdoms here when expelled from the plains. Old taboos have persisted. Centuries have meant little to Himachalis and generations seem to have passed without much change. The people have borne everything—good and bad rule alike—ungrudgingly. Exploitation to them, till date, is nothing new; they take it as an integral part of their lives. Court intrigues and

murders have been plentiful; looting of property and destruction of crops, rejection of human rights, treachery and selfishness, easy bargain of selfrespect and cheap morality—all these have been the «lot» of Himachalis and they are used to it. Religions have mixed here. Any traveller would notice the complex, hardly definable but always easily recognisable culture of Hinduism, the monotheism of Islam, the mani formula of Buddhism, the Sat Sri Akal of Sikhism and also the neatly placed Anglican Cross on the hill tops. Races have mixed here—Aryan, Mongoloid and Dravidian. Languages have mixed here—Hindi, Urdu, Punjabi, Kashmiri, Bengali, Rajasthani, Lahuli, Chambiali, Ladakhi, Tibbetan and Sanskrit are spoken in different parts of Himachal Pradesh. There seems to be only one unity—everywhere the life is lived and death is found close to the earth.

Further, situated as Himachal Pradesh is between Pakistan and Tibet, Ladakh and China (Map 2)—the Himachali of today gasps with



Map 2

horror at the movement of trucks, tanks and troops all along the Hindustan-Tibet Road; for, he and his ancestors had known only a man or a mule or a yak as the sole means of carrier and the beast of burden; and swords and spears (barring some rare rustic guns) as the only weapons of warfare.

Apart from these factors of location which make Himachal Pradesh an interesting area for study, its size is convenient for the purposes of intensive research work. With an area of 10,909 sq. miles H. P. is one of the smallest states of the country. An advantage of studying the socioeconomic problems within the framework of a small area is that « we can better understand the relationship between geographic, historic, economic, social factors; and above all, it is possible to know better what these problems and changes mean to the people themselves (1).

More or less all the communities live in H.P. and may be found carrying on their lives together in a single village, yet there are ten principal groups easily recognised by their distinct modes of life. These groups are the Brahmins, Rajputs, Mians, Sirmoris, Thakurs, Rathis, Bohras, Gaddis, Gujars and Kanets. The writer has selected these for the purposes of this enquiry as they pose interesting geographical themes for study.

# I.—EVOLUTION AND COMMON BELIEFS

The object of this section is to give an outline account of the evolution of the social groups and an outline of their common beliefs.

To some geographers, much of this section might appear as «not geography» but the indubitable fact remains that—«... in Asia, where so much of life is ruled by ancient concepts entirely novel to most western students, no human geography could be intelligible without much presentation of purely social factors» (2). Further, attempts have been made to enliven this account by not merely limiting it to description;

(2) Spate, O. H. K., India and Pakistan, London, 1957, p. vIII.

but by introducing these aspects of culture to the social groups in terms of geography. To amplify this statement, it is proposed to treat the subject under the following heads in turn:

A .- An Outline Evolution of the Social groups,

B.—An Outline of their common beliefs.

#### Some basic considerations :

The formation of social groups did not take place suddenly but emerged from two successive processes—first the racial groups became juxtaposed and when these had settled down the social groups appeared. Upon these social groups so formed historical events acted and reacted with the result that now we have thousands of castes in India. Each of these castes has separate individual characteristics of its own. Therefore, each one of our social groups is a separate caste group. Once formed, each caste developed its own code of taboos to preserve its group identity. This tradition, which the chequered events of history tried to shake, kept the group alive. Nevertheless, among all our social groups there is an underlying unity manifested in their common agricultural economy and their common primitive beliefs.

#### A.—Evolution of the Social Groups

# 1. Formation of Racial Groups:

As said before, the Himalayas do not seem to have produced man but have provided refuge to the uprooted humanity from the plains below. There seems to exist no evidence, whatsoever, with respect to any traces of paleolithic or neolithic man in H.P. and the area seems to have been uninhabited during the age of metals (1). Nevertheless, there seems little reason to suspect that the early colonisation of H.P. was not on a pattern similar to the rest of the Indo-gangetic plains.

The first invaders, the conquering Aryans as we call them, «who were passionate eaters of flesh and drinkers of intoxicating beverages» (2)

<sup>(1)</sup> Lewis, Oscar, Life in a Mexican Village, University of Illinois Press, 1951, p. XXVI.

<sup>(1)</sup> After MAJUMDAR, R. C. and others, An Advanced History of India, London, 1949.

<sup>(3)</sup> GHURE, G. S., Caste and Race in Northern India, London, 1932, p. 188.

appear to have found a yellow race—the Sckythians, «the kindred of dragon» (1), in the western Punjab. In some cases, it appears, the two races amalgamated for we read that «Arjun, one of the Pandavas (Aryan), visited Hardwar and there married Ulupi (Sckythian). Thence, led by Angi, the firegod, the Aryans continued their conquest....» (2).

It was, probably, during the course of their conquests that the Aryans encountered a third race which was in possession of the country prior to their arrival. These people were known as Dasyus, and between them and the Aryans there raged continuous wars (3). No terms are too vile to describe these people as we know them from the Aryan literature. These were dark of skin, low statured, treacherous, foul in manners, eaters of raw flesh, an abomination to the new comers (4); and this, probably, is the basis of many of the stories of cannibalism we are still told today. At the same time there are indications that they had acquired a certain degree of culture. The common theory represents these Dasyus as finally reduced to the position of helots or serfs of the new comers. But later evidence, based mainly on anthropometry, indicates that they must have been gradually absorbed among their foreign conquerors; that the number of Aryan colonists was never large, and that from the union of the white, the yellow and the black men, arose the modern people of northern India (5).

Thus the obvious conclusion is that the existing type of man all over northern India is, probably, the result of at least three strains of blood—Aryan, Sckythian and Dravidian. «The new comers, in fact, imposed their religion, their culture, their social polity upon the old races; but they have themselves been absorbed, as the Normans into Frenchmen, Alexandrian Greeks into Egyptians, and half a dozen European races are being combined in the Yankee» (6).

### 2. Formation of caste groups:

The literature on caste is enormous. The subject has been discussed ad nauseum and so far without much definite result. Only to make a mention—«There are the occupational theory of Nesfield; Ibbetson's theory of a combination of tribal divisions, functional guilds and religious monopolies; Riselay's racial and hypergamous theory; Ketkar's tribal theory; any synthetic account of Gait.....; and finally the composite theory of Hutton» (1). It would, therefore, be a «folly for a novice to attempt even a rough working definition; both from a «resume» of some admitted facts and of what appear to be the more tenable hypothesis, it is hoped that some idea of the nature and working of caste may emerge» (2).

It seems probable that as the numbers within the racial groups went on increasing, it is quite likely that at later stages a necessity was perhaps felt for some kind of division of labour to facilitate the smooth working of the racial groups existing at that time. Each group was, probably, therefore, sub-divided for the sake of economic convenience. There were four main groupings—Brahmins (priests), Kshatriyas (warriors), Vaishyas (traders) and Shudras (cultivators) together with the lower groups known variously as untouchables, Depressed classes, Scheduled castes and Exterior castes (3). But it is probably necessary to repeat that these groups were formed at later stages for the Vedas know nothing about caste; in the code of Manu it is fully developed, even if its rules are somewhat less stringent than at the present time (4). Perhaps, we could conclude that the basis of caste was not ethical but occupational. Besides the four main castes, there are hundreds of sub-castes. All the minor castes were derived from an admixture between the four so-called original castes (5).

<sup>(1)</sup> CROOKE, W., The Northern Provinces of India, London, 1897, p. 196.

<sup>(2)</sup> CROOKE, W., op. cit., p. 196.

<sup>(3)</sup> After Majumdar, R. C., (ed.), History and Culture of the Indian People, Vol. 1. The Vedic Age, London, 1952.

<sup>(4)</sup> After CROOKE, W., Ibid., pp. 196-197.

<sup>(6)</sup> After CROOKE, W., op. cit., pp. 196-197.

<sup>(6)</sup> CROOKE, W., op. cit., p. 201.

<sup>(1)</sup> Roy, S. C., Inadequacy of the Current Theories of Caste, Man in India, Ranchi, Vol. XIV, No. 2, 1934, p. 1.

<sup>(2)</sup> SPATE, O. H. K., op. cit., p. 136.

<sup>(3)</sup> In support of this, also see Spate, O. H. K., op. cit., p. 137.

<sup>(4)</sup> After CROOKE, W., op. cit., p. 61.

<sup>(5)</sup> After CROOKE, W., op. cit., p. 61.

But once started, the principle was strengthened, perpetuated and extended to all ranks of society by the fiction that people who speak a different language, live in a different district, worship different gods, eat different food, observe different social customs, follow a different profession or practise the same profession in a slightly different way—must be so unmistakably aliens that inter-marriage with them is a thing not to be thought of <sup>(1)</sup>.

(1) Caste through history: Caste, in its present form, appears to be a legacy of the Brahmanical revival after Buddhism during the Hindu period. It is probable then, that the extraordinary and fantastic notions permitting all privileges to the Brahmins only, developed. For example, we are told that «the Ambastha or physician is the offspring of a Vaishya woman by a Brahmin father. But here a distinction was made, a special strain was attached to the connection of a Brahmin woman with a Shudra» (2).

During the Muslim period came another blow to the Brahmanical strength when a considerable number of *Shudras* were converted to Islam (besides some Rajputs during the reigns of Akbar and Aurangzeb—in the former period willingly, while in the latter unwillingly—the reasons being political). The Muslim religion appealed to the *Shudras* since it ended their exploitation at the hands of the superior Hindu castes.

During the British period there was rarely any mixing of blood with the ruler. During this period existed a sort of social-distance between the ruler and the ruled. The British hardly, if ever, interfered with the customs of the Indian society.

(II) Present trends: Towards the end of the 19th century Crooke remarked—«....the present Brahmin group contains elements very different from that of the ancient, contemplative Rishis, who in their hermitages meditated on the problems of life and death. The Rajputs are....much debased by inter-mixture with meaner tribes. The Vaishyas

practically no longer exist; unless they have been perpetuated in some of the higher bania castes.... The aggregate of Shudras, also contains the most diverse elements and hardly survives except as a convenient term of abuse for tribes which are supposed to be impure» (1).

Nearly 60 years later, Spate remarks—« Today individuals have obviously much greater facilities for breaking away, owing to the increased mobility and the increasingly economic values of modern society. Hence the broad occupational co-relations....have long been meaningless, except that only Brahmins can be priests» (2).

The writer knows only the change that he has seen during his lifetime. Though after his return from England (in 1958) he was not required to undergo a ceremonial purification in his town, but certainly his relatives in the village have inner hesitations (and certainly objections too) with his food habits and manners. Thus it is a long way from the Council Chambers at New Delhi to the thousands of villages; and the old ways may die hard, the gulf between legislation and enforcement in the face of social apathy or hostility is great in much less vital matters. A note of optimism is struck by saying—«Yet, however, long and hard the way, the assential first steps have been taken, and this is much...» (3). But the writer would agree only in as much as that—«Today .... caste faces what is probably the greatest crisis in its history» (3), as the shift is only slight and does not appear to be of much significance.

# 3. Social Groups in Himachal Pradesh:

It is perhaps clear that firstly the racial groups were formed and the caste groups followed. These caste groups are our social groups; as each caste has its distinct taboos and fixed code of law for social behaviour. The attitudes and values of the individuals are related to the broader and wider group i.e. their castes. These caste groups are not only the social-groups but culture-groups as well. They have also been called,

<sup>(1)</sup> In support of this and for more details, see Riselay's comments quoted by CROOKE, W., op. cit., p. 87.

<sup>(2)</sup> After CROOKE, W., op. cit., p. 90.

<sup>(1)</sup> CROOKE, W., op. cit., p. 204.

<sup>(3)</sup> SPATE, O. H. K., op. cit., p. 137.

<sup>(3)</sup> Ibid., pp. 139-140.

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rather aptly perhaps, «friendly societies and trade unions» (1). Whatever name we may decide to give to these social groups, caste is at the root.

The social groups living in Himachal Pradesh have been studied in detail by the writer. They have been mentioned earlier in this paper. Although, more or less, all the communities live in Himachal Pradesh, yet these ten communities could perhaps be easily recognised by their distinct modes of life. These principal communities, therefore, pose an interesting basis of our sociogeographical study.

#### B.—Common Beliefs of the Communities

Probably, a socio-geographical study of the people of H.P. would hardly be complete without a mention of the common beliefs of the *Himachalis* (for all the social groups) which have come down to them as legacies from the distant past and under whose constant influence all the communities live in the present times.

A peasant or a pastoral of Himachal Pradesh considers that he is environed by a world of spirits which control all the conditions of his life. These spirits, as a rule, effect him more for evil than for good, and, as might be expected, those that are malignant in their nature require special propriation; while those that are benevolent are accepted as normal and receive only slight and infrequent worship. It is extremely difficult to make even a rough classification of the vague, amorphous beliefs like these. The peasant, however, generally distinguishes between the spirits, not embodied in the form of Nature, which control his life. Only the relevant ones are being taken here in the succeeding paragraphs.

All Himachalis are devoted worshippers of the Sun. Even the Gujars (Muslims by religion) share in sunworship. The higher caste Hindus worship. him everyday. Perhaps, the sunworship is associated with the hill agriculture for which the need of sunshine requires hardly any emphasis, besides the point of human comfort in the hilly climate.

The Moon is regarded as a diety of a lower rank. She is believed to

preside over the growth of crops and is supposed to be the healer of wounds, especially those of the eye.

Other planets are important, chiefly from the point of view of astrology and preparations of horoscopes, which in the higher castes regulate marriage. But the farmer takes more interest in the phenomena of eclipses which are regarded, according to the Hindu mythology, as the work of a demon attempting to devour the Sun or the Moon. Among the Brahmins, this is regarded as a taboo when the food remaining in the house is supposed to become impure and the earthern vessels used at the time must be broken or given away to the menials—a waste in the midst of poverty.

Rivers are supposed to flow under the agency of an indwelling spirit which is generally benignant. Hence bathing brings sinner, or the man polluted by taboo, into communion with this spirit and makes him clean in the moral, rather than the physical sense. The value of any perennial stream to the farmers, more so in view of the limited facilities for irrigation, needs hardly any emphasis; and perhaps the river worship is associated with this fact.

Mountains, hillocks and forests are supposed to be spirit haunted. «Gods, ghosts and witches live in them»—goes the popular belief. Tree worship forms a large part of the animistic beliefs and a number of trees have been adopted into the worship of higher gods e.g. Bel (Aegle Marmelos) is supposed to be the sacred tree of Parvati, the consort of the Lord Shiva, and as such is supposed to fulfil all the desires of women. Mostly the barren women worship Bel. The pipal tree is regarded sacred by all the Hindus and is found growing near many shrines. Mountains are also revered and feared. Lord Shiva is supposed to live at Mt. Kailash which is not far away and hence the Himachalis revere Mahasu (i.e. Maha—the big Lord, + Su-Shiva) which is the most important diety of Himachal Pradesh.

With the beginning of settled life came, probably, the worship of the Mother Earth. She too has manifestations being regarded generally as benign, the mother of all things, the giver of food. But sometimes she brings disease and demands propriation. As she permits no evil spirit to rest upon her wide bosom, hence the dying man should be

<sup>(1)</sup> SPATE, O. H. K., op. cit., p. 139.

laid on the ground and the mother at the time of her delivery; while newly wedded couples sleep on the ground for the first few weeks of married life. The herdsmen propriate her by letting the first stream of milk fall on the ground, and as the building of a house disturbs her when the foundations are being dug, she must be worshipped when it is occupied for the first time; and also at the family rites of marriage and child birth (1).

Among the Gujars (Muslim by religion), who bury their dead, it is easy to understand that the Earth Goddess becomes connected with death and is regarded as the patron of disease—particularly that of an epidemic. Hence she manifests herself in Mari Mata (or Mother Death) who presides over cholera; and as Shitla Mata (i.e. She that loves the cool)—an allusion to the high fever which accompanies small pox. The latter in a land where vaccination is only beginning to be adopted (and that too not infrequently to a considerable distaste of these communities), is the chief scourage of infant life. Her little shrines are widespread all over the landscape and at times when the epidemic is rife the mothers of the country hasten to propriate her.

With the establishment of permanent hamlets, a new class of dieties appears, to which most of the homage of the peasantry is at present devoted. These are the gramdeotas (deohar) or the godlings of the village. The characteristic of this form of worship is that it is purely local, each village having its own shrine and its own set of gods. Sometimes, of course, one of these acquires a wider vogue on account of the cures performed at his shrine and other mercies which have been vouched by him. The village diety, in such cases, blossoms out into an incarnation or manifestation of one of the greater gods. This fact probably has an important effect of tying these communities down to their own villages, whose gods they know and can propriate, and of making them averse to wander beyond their village gods into the domain of strange powers whose worship they do not understand.

#### II.—COMMUNITIES

It is proposed in this section to use the field-information collected by the writer to provide, as far as possible, a geographical interpretation of the different communities in Himachal Pradesh.

Although the social structure is complicated and the caste system has minute subdivisions, ten principal communities could be recognised. These communities differ in economy and in other aspects of culture including their origins and social life.

Two principal geographical themes present themselves for study. First, there is the fact that in H.P. several social groups are observed living under similar conditions of physical background e.g. in the district of Bilaspur the physical conditions are practically uniform throughout and in that area the three social groups —Mians, Rathis and Brahmins—carry on their lives. The first theme is, then to study the extent to which differences in modes of life in an area throughout which physical conditions for practical purposes are uniform.

Secondly, there is the fact that the area occupied by the Rajputs and the allied groups—e.g. Mians, Sirmori, Thakur and Rathi—is divided into a number of river valleys where the conditions of physical environment are different. Yet the Rajputs of these areas have, practically, common origins and more or less similar traditions. The second interesting geographical theme is, therefore, the study of the extent to which differences in the mode of life between one part and another of a social group could be explained in terms of differences in the physical background.

The problem of presenting the field information:

On completion of the field-work, the writer had 15,000 answers to 150 questions for each one of the 100 villages surveyed. The problem was to rearrange this information in such a form that it could be of use in the description and interpretation of communities. Some of the information was given in writing, other items were given numerically.

<sup>(1)</sup> Field Work Information from Mandi, June 1954.

SOCIAL GROUPS IN HIMACHAL PRADESH

To avoid unnecessary repetition, the writer has selected 60 villages for the purposes of this thesis by bracketing the similar villages e.g. if there are 5 Rajput villages giving, more or less, the same results, the writer has picked up only one of these five Rajput villages for the purposes of this study. The writer has also prepared a separate handy table (Table 1) to interpret the economic and social life of these social groups.

With the help of this information the themes for study have been developed. Each one of the ten principal communities has been studied under the two major heads of «The Economy» and «The Social Life». The matters of their «Origins» have also been touched upon in their relevance to such treatment. Towards the end, attention has been paid to the dynamic aspects of the organisms. These have been described under the head—«The Changing Scene».

Thus emerge five headings under which each community has been studied:

- 1. The Origin of the Community.
- 2. The Distribution of the Community.
- 3. The Economy of the Community.
- 4. The Social life of the Community.
- 5. The Changing Scene in the Community.

# A.—Brahmins (B)

1. Origin: This group is still supposed to be at the apex of the Hindu Caste System. The popular theory ascribes their origin from Brahma, the Supreme Creator. The ancients who believed in the divine descent of man and in special creation, have explained the caste system as derived from the person of the Supreme Creator—Brahma. This theory has been described by the Hindu law-giver Manu, with a wealth of detail which is still accepted by the orthodox section of population in India.

- 2. Distribution: Brahmins are scattered all over the area but the major concentration of this community is, more or less, confined to the major religious spots of Himachal Pradesh, which fall mostly in the sub-montane areas of Mandi and Bilaspur below the contour of 3,000 ft. in the Siwalik zone.
- 3. Economy: During the Hindu period this group led, perhaps completely, a priestly mode of life; but with the changing times during the Muslim and the British periods, its members took to agriculture as more and more land came to the group in the form of dan (gift) from other communities, chiefly from the Rajputs. For the purposes of this paper, the group life of the Brahmins is relevant only in so far as the group has a fundamental dependence upon agriculture as the primary source of livelihood (1).

The average amount of land possessed per head (2) is 30 bighas (of grade B), the size of the largest field is 5 bighas, while the smallest field is of ½ a bigha. Only 9% of the cultivated area is irrigated. The average crop yield for all the Rabi crops is 5 maunds per brigha, while that for the Kharif crop is 3 maunds per bigha (Table I, 1).

Almost every member of the group has a pair of bullocks and a couple of cows. They also possess a buffalo along with a few goats, and a mule; but the latter animals are regarded as unclean (Table I, 2).

4. Social life: 60% of the Brahmins possess double storeyed houses, and another 20% have a separate enclosure for their cattle. Their houses are not too small and are the cleanest among all the groups of H.P. Kerosene is used for lighting purposes in 60% of the houses (Table I, 3).

The hill Brahmins do not seem to be as strict vegetarians as their counterpart in the plains. Also, they do not appear to be fussy regarding the use of liquor and opium, the justification being partly the cold climate

<sup>(1)</sup> At the same time it is perhaps necessary to remark that most of the Brahmin farmers do supplement their incomes by occasional *Panditai* (i.e. Ciceronship).

<sup>(2)</sup> Per-head. Cannotes 'per head of the family'.

and partly the supposed proximity to Lord Shiva (1). The staple cereals are rice and wheat (Table I, 4).

Brahmins appear to be a strictly monogamous group. The number of unmarried males and the male children in a family is larger than the corresponding number of females (Table I, 5). This feature seems to be associated with the fact that a certain amount of premium is put on the birth and upbringing of a male child.

The ladies of this group refrain from going outside their houses and a strict purdah is maintained. Of all the groups in H.P., the ladies of the Brahmin group are perhaps one of the weakest participants in any outdoor work (Table I, 6). The degree of rigidity in matters of female segregation gives an extra status to the family. Thus, the greater the female segregation, the nobler the particular family is supposed to be. Most Brahmin families, therefore, have to depend upon servants, usually the village menials, for all the routine household jobs.

The hill Brahmins seem to be more superstitious than those in the plains as here 80 % of them look forward to the propriation of the ghosts, spirits and local godlings for the cure of all the diseases; hardly 20 % care to go to the doctor (Table I, 7). The family ties appear to be thick in this group. The ages at which boys and girls should be married and the respective levels of literacy for the either sex are lower here than in the plains (Table I, 7).

The incidence of crime and mobility appear to be one of the lowest in this group (Table I, 8, 9). A Brahmin of H.P. seems to be a peace loving fellow. He leaves his home only when and if he finds some prospects for ciceronship which give him some extras over his agricultural produce. This fact reflects probably the materialistic outlook of the group.

5. The Changing Scene: An increase in population and the consequent partition of the land, with all the attendant problems of subdivision and fragmentation, are the changing features in the group. On the

credit side there seems to be only one fact that education is spreading faster in this group than any other in H.P. The boys and girls, after finishing their primary education, go to the nearest towns for secondary education. These boys and girls disregard the old taboos and thus do not like to go back to the village either to marry or to live in. The ties with the land are, therefore, progressively with each generation, becoming loser. The blessing of literacy appears to be not unmixed from the point of view of agricultural prosperity.

# B.—RAJPUTS (R)

- 1. Origin: The term Rajput literally means the son of a Raja in the sense that they claim to be the descendents from a ruling race which in turn is supposed to have descended either from the Sun (Surajvansi) or the Moon (Chandravansi). During the Moghul period their title of Raja was respected within their own States. During the British period the Rajputs either continued to be the rulers of their old States or were among the biggest of zamindars (Landlords). In either capacity they were hardly more than a sort of middlemen between the cultivators and the government for the purposes of collecting the revenue. Now as the zamindari (landlordism) has been abolished, they are simply big cultivators possessing large amounts of agricultural lands.
- 2. Distribution: Before the merger, Rajputs were the rulers of the then Hill States. As such, their concentration is attributed mostly to the local capitals of the respective States (now the district or tahsil headquarters) where either directly a family of indirectly the group-or-allied kins (1) were the local monarchs. But such concentration was fragmentary and the whole group was not restricted to the capitals alone. The larger part of the group was, as it now is, scattered in the major river valleys of H.P.

Bulletin, t. XXXV.

<sup>(1)</sup> Lord Shiva, The Lord Destroyer of the Hindu mythology supposed to be fond of intoxicants.

<sup>(1)</sup> This division into septs is based on the concept of the so-called 'purity of blood', an outcome of the practice of hypergamy.

3. Economy: The average amount of land possessed per head is 50 bighas (of grade A), the size of the biggest field is 8 bighas while the smallest field is of 2 bighas. The area under irrigation is 15% of the area under cultivation. The average yield for all the Rabi crops is 8 maunds per bigha, while that for the Kharif crops is 5 maunds per bigha (Table I, 1).

Probably, associated with the traditional social superiority as reflected in the ownership of land, is the larger cattlewealth than the Brahmins (Table I, 2).

4. Social Life: Most of the Rajputs possess a separate enclosure for cattle besides a spacious house. In matters of neatness these houses are inferior to those of the Brahmins but 70 % of the families use kerosene for lighting purposes (Table I, 3).

The consumption of milk and milk products, meat, wine and opium is higher than the Brahmin group (Table I, 4). Perhaps, their food habits are associated partly with the fact that the Rajputs possess greater number of cattle than the Brahmins and partly because the use of meat, wine and opium is not proscribed for them by the scriptures as it is for the Brahmins.

Despite the Hindu Code Bill (1) the hill Rajputs are still a polygamous group (2); the family size is, therefore, larger than of the Brahmins who are strictly monogamous. The number of unmarried males and the male children in the family is larger than the corresponding numbers for the females (Table I, 5).

A Rajputani is a segregated human being. She does not participate in the outdoor field operations, though she might in an emergency (or out of poverty), fetch drinking water from the nearest spring (that too after the sunset) and might give a helping hand in looking after the cattle (Table I, 6).

Rajputs, in H.P., appear to be more superstitious than B; for in an event of illness, only 10% would care to consult the nearest physician while 90% would put the reliance in bhoot-utarna (or the 'ghost treatment') or the village deohar (godling). The age of marriage for boys and girls is low but some attempts are made towards the education of male children. The ties of joint-family and brotherhood appear to be loose, perhaps associated with the growth of materialistic values after the World War II and the consequent increase of the separatist tendencies among the members of the group. The difference here again, over the Brahmins, appears to be one of degree and not so much of the kind (Table I, 7).

The incidence of crime in the group is high and with this seems to be associated the high mobility of the group (Table I, 8, 9). «In the absence of healthier forms of amusement, the Rajput often seeks to avoid ennui by carrying on a law suit. In the land where evidence can be bought or sold, and where the advocates of the best sort make a trade of chickenery, this usually supplies abundant excitement» (t). Such practices seem to be related to an unhealthy atmosphere for a healthy social and cultural life in a Rajput village.

5. The Changing Scene: The group presents some dismal trends in the declining ownership of land, an increase in the sub-division and fragmentation of holdings, the progressive deterioration in the cropyields, quality and number of cattle and an increase in the incidence of crime. At a slow but steady rate the literacy (even for girls) seems to be on an increase. This, probably, is the only healthy trend in this community.

### C.—MIANS (M)

1. Origin: Next to the royal clans in social importance, are those groups with whom the Rajputs are connected by marriage. « The honour of the clan draws them within the exclusive circle. It is not easy to

<sup>(1)</sup> The Hindu Code Bill, a law enforcing strict monogamy for all the Hindus of India.

<sup>(3)</sup> This privilege of keeping Ranis (queens) and Patranis (super-queens) allowed to a Raja during the Hindu period, continues even now in H. P. by the sheer force of tradition.

<sup>(1)</sup> After CROOKE, W., op. cit., p. 92.

indicate the line which separates the Rajput from the clans immediately below him. The Mian would restrict the term Rajput to those of royal descent....» (1). Mians affect most of the customs of the Rajputs. They select secluded spots for their dwellings, immunise their women, are very particular with whom they marry of broth in marriage, but they have generally taken to agriculture (1). However, the Rajputs generally look down upon the Mians, for—« Mians accepted the Moghul supremacy during the reign of Jehangir and also their marriage customs are rather loose.

For the purposes of this paper, it would perhaps be enough to say that in matters of origin the Mian community is like the Rajputs. Only because of certain laxities in marriage customs, the Rajputs think of Mians as below them in matters of social status, which in turn effects the economic status of the Mians.

- 2. Distribution: The Mians claim to be like Rajputs; as such, their areal distribution in H.P. follows closely the Rajput zone with major concentration in parts of Bilaspur and Mandi. The areas near the towns (the former capitals of the old States) being occupied by the Rajputs.
- 3. Economy: Mians seem to stand between B and R in their possessions of land and cattle. The average amount of land possessed per head is 40 bighas; the size of the largest field is 6 bighas while the smallest field is of 2 bighas only. The area under irrigation is only 12 % of the area under cultivation. The average yield for all the Rabi crops is 7 maunds per bigha while that for the Kharif crops is only 4 maunds per bigha (Table I, 1). The cattle wealth is also next to the Rajputs (Table I, 2).
- 4. Social Life: Most Mians possess a spacious house while quite a large number possess a separate enclosure for the cattle too. In matters of neatness these houses fall short of B's but the majority of families in this group seem to use kerosene for lighting purposes (Table I, 3).

The food habits of this group do not appreciably differ from those of the Rajputs (Table I, 4); this point seems to be a further manifestation

of the desire to be treated at par with the Rajputs. The same fact appears again to be related to the polygamous nature of the group, the size of the Mian families thus being larger than those of B (Table I, 5). A social-geographer finds these facts, though apparently of a purely sociological character, quite relevant in so far as they create demographic problems in turn, mentioned earlier. The number of unmarried males and male children in the family is higher than the corresponding numbers of the females, perhaps, for the reasons similar to those mentioned in the case of the Rajputs.

The ladies among the Mians are segregated though not to the same extent as among the Rajputs. The difference appears to be only of the degree and not much of kind (Table I, 6).

This group appears to be as superstitious as R—10% of the Mians care to consult a doctor in an event of illness and do not depend completely on the ghosts and the village gods for the cures of all diseases. The age for marriage of boys and girls is higher than in the Rajputs and also more children from this group go to the schools than from the former group. The ties of joint family are loose for perhaps the reasons similar to those as mentioned in the case of Rajputs and Brahmins (Table I, 7).

The mobility of this group is lesser than that of R and appears to be associated with the lesser incidence of crime as compared with R (Table I, 8, 9).

5. The Changing Scene: Although the evil of subdivision and fragmentation of holdings associated with the break up of the joint-family system, seems to be the lot of this group as well, some healthier trends are also visible over the Rajput group. This could, perhaps, be explained in terms of the attempts on the part of the Mians to associate themselves with the Rajput group by whom they are considered inferior. It is probably rather interesting to discover that these matters of social status enable a community to pay more attention to agricultural persuits, control numbers (by turning to monogamy), educate children and work harder, in cooperation with other Mians, to go ahead so as to be able to climb up the social ladder.

<sup>(1)</sup> After Kangra District Gazetteer (henceforth K.D.G.), p. 166.

# D.—SIRMORI (S)

- 1. Origin: The Rajputs of Sirmur, though claim an identical origin as the other Rajputs of the hills, but follow the customs of Rajasthan than those of Himachal Pradesh. While preferring to marry their daughters into a class higher than their own, they do not doom them to remain unwed; if no such alliance offers. In other respects they are as punctilious as the Rajputs of the hills (1). Obviously the Sirmori Rajputs appear to combine the culture of the plains and the hills.
- 2. Distribution: As is clear from the word 'Sirmori' these Rajputs are found mostly in the Sirmur district—the only district possessing comparatively the largest amount of level land in H.P. between the contours of 500 fit. and 2.500 ft. rolling down to Paonta on the banks of the river Jamuna.
- 3. Economy: The average amount of land possessed per head is 45 bighas, the size of the largest field is 7 bighas while the smallest field is of 2 bighas only. The percentage of the irrigated area to cultivated is 11. The average yield for all the Rabi crops is 6 maunds per bigha while that for the Kharif crops is 4 maunds per bigha (Table I, 1). It is clear that, inspite of possessing large fields in a comparatively leveller part of H.P., the crop yields are proportionately not large enough to be encouraging; for quite a number of Sirmoris still believe that «it is sacrilegious to lacerate the bosom of the Mother Earth with an iron ploughshare» (2), while some others declare that «the offence consists in subjecting sacred oxen to labour» (2). The probable reason appears to be as boasted by one of the informants of Paonta—«the legitimate weapon of the military class in the sword; and the plough is the bedge of a lower walk of life; and the exchange of a noble for a ruder profession is tentament to a renunciation of the privileges of caste (3).

Perhaps, the cattlewealth is associated with the ownership of land coupled with the traditional social superiority of the 'Sirmori' over the groups below him (Table I, 2).

4. Social Life: Most of the Sirmoris possess a separate cattleshed besides a spacious house. In matters of neatness, these houses are like those of R while 70 % of the families use kerosene oil for lighting purposes (Table I, 3).

In food habits—the consumption of milk and milk products is high, and that of meat not as frequent as is higher up among the R; since more grains and vegetables are conveniently available from the adjacent plains of the Punjab and the U.P. Not infrequently the Sirmoris drink wine, but here again the consumption is lesser than is for the groups higher up the hills (Table I, 4).

Simoris are also a polygamous group, the number of unmarried males and the male children in the family is larger than the corresponding numbers for the females, perhaps for the reasons explained above for R, B and M (Table I, 5). The ladies are segregated and are not allowed to participate in any other work (Table I, 6).

This group appears to be less superstitious than those in the hills for it is clear that more attempts are made to consult the doctor than worship the ghosts (Table I, 7). The age of marriage for boys and girls is higher than B, M and R; and most of the boys (some girls too) are sent to the school. The ties of joint-family are loose as among R. The mobility of the group and the incidence of crime are rather high (Table I, 8, 9).

5. The Changing Scene: The community presents some dismal trends in the declining ownership of land, an increase in the subdivision and fragmentation of holdings, the progressive deterioration in the crop yields, quality and number of cattle and an increase in the incidence of crime. At a slow, but steady, rate the literacy appears to be increasing. This probably is the only healthy trend in the group.

# E.—THAKURS (T)

1. Origin: The Rajputs, Mians and Sirmoris call Thakurs— 'the degenerated Rajputs' and consider them as an inferior group to

<sup>(1)</sup> After the Sirmur States Gazetteer, p. 50.

<sup>(2)</sup> Field Work Information, 1959.

<sup>(8)</sup> Ibid.

themselves. Also, as a caste the «Thakurs rank below the Rajputs in the hills» (1). The oldest traditions refer to a time when petty chiefs bearing the title of Rana or Thakur exercised authority either as independent rulers or under the suzerainty of a paramount power. The period during which they ruled is spoken of as the Aphthakurai or Thakurain or Thakurai, while the territory of Rana was called Ranhun. Rajputs and Mians were mostly the Ranas in these hills. «Thus it would seem that the two titles—Rana and Thakur—implied a difference of caste, the Thakurs ranking lower than the Ranas socially» (2).

Above arguments regarding the cultural history of the group are perhaps significantly helpful to us for the purposes of this thesis, in so far as the effect of social inferiority is conspicuous in the social and economic life of the group as the caste incompetence is a positive check to their standing in the society.

- 2. Distribution: Thakurs are widespread all over Mahasu and the higher hills of Mandi. It appears that the best pieces of land—the fertile river valleys and the gentle sunny slopes—were occupied earlier by the higher castes from the very beginning; and the Thakurs, along with others, had to be content with less favourable spots. Even the areal distribution seems to have been associated with the social status.
- 3. Economy: The average amount of land possessed per head is 35 bighas, the largest field is of 5 bighas while the smallest is of  $\frac{1}{2}$  a bigha only. The percentage of the irrigated land to cultivated is 9. The average crop yields for Rabi are 5 maunds per bigha while those for Kharif are only 3 maunds per bigha (Table I, 1). The inferior status of Thakurs to R, M and S is reflected in the lesser number of cattle possessed by them (Table I, 2).
- 4. Social Life: Most of the Thakurs possess a small cattle enclosure apart from a small house. The houses are dirtier than B, R, M and S (Table I, 3). The consumption of milk and milk products is lower than

the R, M and S. This seems to be related partly to the fact that the number of cattle possessed by the Thakurs is smaller than these groups and also partly to the fact that Thakurs prepare ghi to sell it in the market. The food habits are similar to R (Table I, 4). The Thakurs are also a polygamous group and the number of unmarried males and the male children in the family is higher than the corresponding number of the females (Table I, 5). The women are not segregated to strictly as in other groups mentioned previously and are allowed to do some light work as fetching water and looking after the cattle (Table I, 6).

As for the outlook on ghost worship, the bonds within the family and the group, the age of marriage for the either sex, mobility and crime—this group is not unlike the R, M and S except that the trends are more discouraging (Table I, 7, 8, 9).

5. The Changing Scene: The community presents similar dismal trends as in the case of the Sirmori, perhaps, in a much worse form. Literacy is also withheld from the children on the plea that «schoolgoing is simply a waste of time—meanwhile, they could look after cattle or do some work in the fields» (1).

#### F.—RATHIS (RA)

- 1. Origin: In origin they belong neither to the Rajput nor the Shudra, but are apparently an amalgammation of both. Though they appear to be degenerate Rajputs, yet if they are to be definitely classified, they be classed as Shudras. Their ranks are being constantly increased by defection from the Rajputs and by illegitimate connections. The offspring of a Rajput father by a Shudra mother would be styled as Rathi, and accepted as such by the brotherhood (2). The higher septs only are generally styled as Thakurs. These are affronted at being called Rathis, although they do not effect to be pure Rajputs.
- 2. Distribution: The septs of Rathis are innumerable; no one could render a faithful catalogue of them. They are as numerous as the villages

<sup>(1)</sup> After the Kangra District Gazetteer, p. 196.

<sup>(8)</sup> Kangra District Gazetteer, p. 196.

<sup>(1)</sup> Thus complained a school master in the village Deora.

<sup>(</sup>a) After the Kangra District Gazetteer, p. 137.

they inhabit, from which indeed their distinguishing names are generally derived <sup>(1)</sup>. Thus, they are found all over Himachal Pradesh but their greater concentration is in southern Chamba, western Mandi, parts of Bilaspur and upper Mahasu.

3. Economy: The amount of land possessed per head is 30 bighas. The size of the largest field is 4 bighas while the smallest is of  $\frac{1}{4}$  bigha only (Table I, 1). Inspite of the lesser amounts of agricultural land they possess, the crop yields for Ra are the same as those for B who possess more land and in better conditions of physical environment. In their general character and devotion to agriculture they present a strong resemblance to the Jats of the plains. The high estimation in which they are held locally has found expression in the following popular saying:

Kukri Siyan—Rathi puchchiyan:

i.e. As the Indian corn is the first among the crops, so the Rathis are the most important among the farming castes.

Almost every number of the group, on an average, has 5 cattle besides 13 goats and 12 sheep (Table I, 2).

4. Social Life: Despite the limited amount of land Rathis possess, they manage to build a separate cattleshed, even if it is only a small one. Kerosene is used in 50% of the houses (Table 7, 3).

The Rathis do not seem to be fussy in their food habits. Nothing appears to be forbidden to them (Table I, 4). Like the Rajputs, Rathis are also a polygamous group and the number of unmarried males and the male children in the family is larger than the corresponding numbers for the females (Table I, 5). The women among the Rathis, seem to have more freedom than in other Rajput groups (Table I, 6). In an event of illness, they rarely care to go to the doctor; the family bonds seem to be stronger than the groups, M, S and T; the marriages take place at, perhaps, a right age and the children go to school (Table I, 7).

Except for some thefts, Rathis otherwise seem to be a peace-loving people (Table I, 8). The group is not as mobile as R (Table I, 9). In general, Rathis are quiet type of people, cheery and hardworking.

5. The Changing Scene: Of late, quite a few Rathis have started leaving their homes for the plains. Perhaps, this fact could be related to their meagre land resources. This attempt to seek destiny 'in distant lands' seems to have resulted in higher education, greater urbanisation in the group, larger remittances home and better standards of living. There is, yet, another side of the picture as well. They are not now as devoted to agriculture as they used to be <sup>(1)</sup>.

# G.—Bohras (Bo)

1. Origin: As said before, the Himalayas do not seem to have created man but to have assimilated the currents of humanity from below. According to one account Bohras were originally Banias from the plains but coming to hills they began to eat meat and otherwise identified themselves with their surroundings and so became a separate group (2). Another story is that their progenitor came from the Deccan to Kangra with Raja Sher Chand and became the Prime Minister. His descendents afterwards took to trade and spread themselves along the lower hills (2). In their original homes (perhaps, in the plains), they are, more or less, strict observers of the Shastras, but up in Mahasu they are said to marry Kanet girls (3).

For the purposes of this paper, the group life is relevant only in so far as this community plays a role, perhaps, a significant one, in the

<sup>(1)</sup> After the Kangra District Gazetteer, p. 167.

<sup>(1)</sup> Also, goes a saying popular of late:

<sup>«</sup>Kala Kharappa dungi choi, Rathi mitar na karega koi.»

i.e. «Rathi is like a cobra erect, or a deep stream; let no one make friends with him.»

<sup>(2)</sup> After S.H.S., pp. 18-19.

<sup>(3)</sup> Field Work Information from Rampur in June 1959.

socio economic set up of the area in being mostly the big money-lenders and traders and also partly as land owners and cultivators.

- 2. Distribution: Bohras live in all towns and large villages of Himachal Pradesh but their special concentration is around Rampur, Simla and Mandi; of these three, Rampur is the important pocket of the Bohra community.
- 3. Economy: Bohras are primarily money-lenders and traders and as such they care more for money than land (1). They are poor farmers. The average amount of land possessed per head is 20 bighas only. The size of the largest field is 4 bighas while the smallest field is of ½ bigha only. The average yield for all the Rabi crops is 5 maunds per bigha while that for the Kharif crops is 3 mds. per bigha. Only 5% of the cultivated land is irrigated (Table I, 1). Related to the land ownership is perhaps the limited number of cattle possessed by the members of this group. However, the number of sheep and goats is larger (Table I, 2). This fact seems to be associated with the buying and selling of these animals which are a part of the business commodity of the Bohra community.
- 3. Social Life: 80% of the Bohras possess a separate cattleshed besides a spacious house. The houses are neat and kerosene is generally used in most of the houses for lighting purposes (Table I, 3). The Bohras in the hills are not strict vegetarians as their brethren in the plains. The number of unmarried males and the male children in the family is larger than the corresponding number of the females (Table I, 4, 5). The women are segregated and are weak participants in outdoor work. In fact they are hardly required to do any work outdoors as there isn't any for them (Table I, 6). Bohras are a superstitious group and have lot of faith in the ghosts and other godlings. The ties of joint-family are loose as the group is perhaps the most materialistic of all the groups in H.P. Most of the children go to school (Table I, 7). The

incidence of crime is low yet comparatively the mobility appears to be high (Table I, 8, 9). This seems to be associated with their business of money-lending, as in an event of non-payment, Bohras normally do not hesitate in taking possession of all that their poor, ignorant debtors have. To do so, they must approach the police and the law courts—both the institutions of the government being in the towns.

5. The Changing Scene: The decline in wool trade with Tibet has hit hard the Bohra community of Rampur—the most prominent of all the places of Bohras. The result has been the exploitation of the local hill people manifested in higher rates of interest (sud) with the result that the lot of the poorer classes has become worse. Serfdom appears to have increased tremendously ever since 1954. It would, perhaps, not be an exaggeration to place it on record that slavery has become a common practice. The generations of the debtor are not able to pay the money back that was borrowed once and the free manual labours of the debtors' family are hardly able to cover up the exorbitant sud. The writer has withnessed for himself the height of luxury and moral degradation among the Bohras.

# H.—GADDIS (G)

1. Origin and general characteristics: The Gaddis are, probably, the most remarkable people in these hills. In features, manners, dress and dialect they differ fundamentally from the rest of the population. They preserve a tradition of the refugees from the Punjab plains stating that their ancestors fled from the open country to escape the horrors of the Muslim invasions and took refuge in these ranges which were at that period mostly uninhabited (1). The Gaddis have traditions which ascribe their origin to immigration from the plains. Thus the Chauhan Rajputs and Brahmin Gaddis accompanied Raja Ajit Varma to Chamba in 1850-70 A.D.; while the Chauhan, Harkhan, Pakhru, Chilebi, Manglu and Kundail Rajputs and Khatris are said to have fled to these

cash and keep only 100 acres for his own household demands.

<sup>(1)</sup> Field Work Information from Brahmaur, 1959.

SOCIAL GROUPS IN HIMACHAL PRADESH

hills to escape Aurangzeb's persecutions. These traditions are not irreconcilable with the view that Brahmaur is the home of Gaddis; for, doubtless the nucleus of their confederation had its seats in the Dhaola Dhar in which range Hindus have from time to time sought an easy asylum from war and persecution in the plains (1).

Thus the term Gaddi is a generic name under which are included Brahmins, Khatris, a few Rajputs, Rathis and Thakurs. The majority, however, are Khatris and the sub-divisions of their castes correspond with those of the Khatris of the plains. Some inferior castes, such as Bedis, Sepis, Halis etc. are also styled as Gaddis (2).

The Gaddis are a semi-pastoral, semi-agricultural race and have been notified to be an agricultural tribe in Chamba (3). The greater portion of their wealth consists of the flocks of sheep and goats whom they feed nearly half the year (during the winter months) in the Beas Valley of Mandi and for another half drive across the range into Chamba (4). They hold lands both in upper Mandi and Chamba and were considered subjects to both the States before 1947. With an appearance of candour and simplicity, the Gaddis have the reputation of being good at making bargain; as is clear from a popular saying about them:

« Gaddi mitar bhola, Dinda top to mangda chola»;

i.e. The Gaddi is a simple friend,

He offers his cap and asks a coat in exchange.

2. Distribution: A few have wandered down into the valleys but mostly they reside exclusively upon the Dhaola Dhar range which divides Chamba from the plains below. They are found from an elevation of 3.500 ft. up to 7.000 ft.

3. Economy: The average amount of land possessed per head is  $25 \ bighas$ ; the size of the largest fild is  $3 \ bighas$  while the smallest is of a  $\frac{1}{4} \ bigha$ . Only 7% of the cultivated area is irrigated. The average crop-yield for all the Rabi crops is  $5 \ maunds$  per bigha while for Kharif crops is only  $3 \ maunds$  per bigha (Table I, 1).

Almost all the Gaddis have a large number of cattle and very large numbers of sheep and goats—a fact associated perhaps with their pastoral mode of life (Table I, 2).

4. Social Life: Nearly 80% of the Gaddis have a permanent house of some sort—either a log-cabin type of thing or a simple stone hut thatched with slates; while another 60% possess a separate cattleshed—perhaps, a necessity associated with the pastoral persuits of the group. The houses are rather dirty probably mainly for the lack of knowledge about the rudiments of elementary hygiene (Table I, 3).

The Gaddis are non-vegetarians and also take wine and opium rather frequently (Table I, 4). They are a monogamous group and endogamy is strictly practised (Table I, 5). The number of unmarried males and the male children in the family is larger than the corresponding numbers of the opposite sex, probably, for the reasons similar to the other patriarchial groups discussed earlier. The women are not segregated and are active participants in all outdoor work at par with the male folk.

Gaddis are a simple, quiet and superstitious folk (Table I, 7, 8, 9). Trees and stones for them are full of magic and charms.

5. The Changing Scene: At a slow but steady rate a number of Gaddi youngmen are leaving their traditional ways of life for the so-called 'urban' ways. In the town of Chamba quite a few are studying the graduate courses. To the writer, they appeared mostly uppish adolescents who consider their traditional ways as 'primitive' and are crazy after anything branded as 'modern'. In such aping, they are losing their own heritage, something which is their own. Their cattle and sheep are now progressively deteriorating in quality and quantity. The cropyields are now lower as a limited number of young folk are left to look after them. The younger generation does not seem to gain by the so-called 'advancement' and they are losing their own culture. It looks

<sup>(1)</sup> Chamba State Gazetteer, p. 137.

<sup>(2)</sup> After Chamba State Gazetteer, p. 137; for more details see O'Brien, E. O., Punjab Ethnology, Monograph No. 11, Lahore, 1910.

<sup>(3)</sup> From the D.H.Q., Chamba, 1959.

<sup>(4)</sup> For details regarding the dress of Gaddis see Chamba State Gazetteer, p. 140.

like a process of deculturation. This changing scene among the Gaddis appears to be further accentuated towards deterioration than among the Brahmins as has been noticed earlier in this paper. The difference, however, seems to be only of the degree and not much of kind.

# I.—Gujars (Gu)

1. Origin and general characteristics: Muslims in H.P. are classed under the names of Kashmiri, Moghol, Pathan and Gujar, the mere mention of which shows whence they came (1). The Gujars are said to be a new importation within the last 100 years and are found with their herds of cows and buffaloes on the slopes of many of the mountain ranges of the Pangi Valley. They migrate as a rule in spring and autumn between the outer hills and the high ranges but do not cross the Pangi Range. Each family has its own dhar or grazing ground in the mountains to which it always returns. Some have permanently settled in the hills.

The hill Gujars are, more or less, exclusively a pastoral tribe. Their wealth consists, chiefly, of buffaloes as that of the Gaddis consists chiefly of sheep and goats. They live in the skirts of the forests and mountains and earn their existence exclusively by the sale of milk, ghi and other products of their herds. While the man graze the cattle, and frequently live out tending them in woods for weeks together, the women go to the markets every morning with baskets on their heads, carrying earthen pots filled with milk, buttermilk and ghi; each pot also containing the proportion required for a day's meal.

- 2. Distribution: The Gujars are chiefly concentrated in the Churah tahsil of the district Chamba which includes the Pangi.
- 3. Economy: The salient features of the economic life of the Gujars are perhaps clear enough. A greater emphasis on pastoralism is reflected in the lesser amount of the possession of agricultural land, lower crop yields and greater possession of cattlewealth (Table I, 1, 2).

4. Social Life: Of necessity, the Gujars have got to have a separate cattleshed. Their houses are not clean but mostly kerosene is used for lighting purposes (Table I, 3). Muslims as they are by religion, they eat everything (Table I, 4).

Gujars are a polygamous group. There is a saying that a Gujri is never a widow and she certainly is rarely without a partner. If she so wishes, she has little difficulty in finding a new husband, for her value as an outdoor worker makes her a profitable match. If she is disinclined to leave her deceased husband's home she can still take a consort to live with her without forfeiting her life interest which is conditional on residence and not on chastity. Associated with this polygamous nature of the group seem to be the large family sizes. Despite their participation, the position of women still seems to be weak (Table I, 5, 6).

Gujars are highly superstitious people, the level of literacy is low as the children also look after the cattle. The incidence of crime and the consequent litigation is low. Besides their routine walks from one *Dhar* (range) to another, mobility otherwise is also low (Table I, 7, 8, 9).

5. The Changing Scene: Of late the emphasis on cattlewealth seems to be declining, the male children are going to the schools in increasing numbers (some girls too), efforts are being made to have more agricultural land, emphasis is being laid on the sedentary life, preference now thus being more in favour of land than cattle. The practice of polygamy is also not looked upon with favour. At the same time, some unhealthy trends like increasing number of thefts and litigation cases were also reported to the writer.

# J.-KANETS (K)

1. Origin: The Kanets were, in all probability, among the earliest, if not the earliest, Aryan invaders of the Himalayas and perhaps of India (1). At later stages, they seem to have been reduced to the position

<sup>(1)</sup> Also see Chamba State Gazetteer, p. 165. They are popularly believed to have been converted to Islam from Hinduism by Aurangzeb.

<sup>(1)</sup> After Mandi State Gazetteer, pp. 84-89. Bulletin, t. XXXV.

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of serfs by the Aryans so that today they form the major group of untouchables in Himachal Pradesh. This social downfall seems to be associated with a complete rejection of the Brahmanical orthodoxy on the part of the Kanets, a matter of probably supreme importance to the early Aryans viz.—« If the name be derived from Ku and Nitya, meaning a man of bad customs, then it was applied, not because the Kanets had fallen from orthodoxy, but because they refused to renounce their ancient usages in favour of Brahmanical practices» (1).

- 2. Distribution: Untouchables as the Kanets are today they live practically all over H.P. serving the higher groups, but their major concentration is confined to the inhospitable high areas of Mahasu.
- 3. Economy: The average amount of land possessed per head is only 8 bighas, the lowest among all the groups. The size of the largest field is 2 bighas while the smallest field is of 1/8 bigha only. Hardly 5 % of the cultivated land has the facilities of irrigation. The average crop yields for Rabi are 4 maunds per bigha while for Kharif they are only one maund per bigha (Table I, 1). The cattle of Kanets are of the poorest quality and are also limited in numbers (Table I, 2).
- 4. Social Life: Of all the social groups in H.P. the Kanets possess the meanest, darkest and the dirtiest houses (or perhaps more appropriately—'hovels'). The situation becomes worse during the rains and the winter season when men and cattle all sleep within one kotha (room), as only a limited number among the group have separate sheds for cattle (Table I, 3).

In food habits, the consumption of milk and milk-products is the least while that of intoxicants is the highest among all the social groups (Table I, 4).

The group is a polygamous one and has large families. The number of unmarried males and male children in the family is higher than the corresponding numbers of the females (Table I, 5). The ties of joint family are loose, the children do not go to school, Kanets are highly

superstitious and the women are active participants in all outdoor occupations (Table I, 6, 7). The incidence of crime is high and seems to be related with the poverty and illiteracy of the group (Table I, 8). Kanets have stay at home habits as they do not want to displease the village godlings by leaving them (Table I, 9).

5. The Changing Scene: The scene is not changing here. The life is static. Here the candidate has seen the grimmest aspects of naked poverty—the semi-clothed and starving children, the moving skeletons of men and cattle, poorly thatched huts falling to the ground and the village streets full of foul odour.

#### III.—THE CULTURAL MATRIX

Twofold attempts have been made in this section—firstly, the differences in the modes of lives of the various communities have been analysed, as far as possible, in relation to the geographical environment; and secondly, efforts have been made to show that inspite of the cultural differences, these groups are integrated so that they carry on their lives together within the framework of a single area. In their social and cultural life the people of Himachal Pradesh, whether living in the similar or dissimilar conditions of the environment, are segregated and yet integrated. These two aspects of the cultural matrix have been discussed in the following pages under two heads:

A.—Cultural Segregation.

B.—Cultural Integration.

#### A.—CULTURAL SEGREGATION

For the purposes of interpreting the cultural differentials of the ten social groups, 54 items of Table I have been represented cartographically in 54 graphs contained in 9 sheets, each one of these sheets showing

<sup>(1)</sup> After Mandi State Gazetteer, pp. 84-89.

6 items of information (Figs. 1 to 9). The theme of cultural segregation has been discussed, therefore, under the following nine heads:

- 1. Agriculture.
- 2. Cattle Wealth.
- 3. Housing Conditions.
- 4. Food Habits.
- 5. Family Composition.
- 6. Extent of Female Segregation.
- 7. Social Attitudes.
- 8. Incidence of Crime.
- 9. Mobility.
- 1. Agriculture (Fig. 1): shows that the Rajputs along with their allied groups (M, S, T, Ra) possess the largest amounts of agricultural land; B, G and Bo come next while Gu and K possess the least amounts of land. This seems to be associated with the fact that the Rajputs and the allied groups were the ruling groups in the past; the land to B came only as a gift; for G it is of a secondary interest whose primary wealth lies in sheep and goats; for Bo the main interest is business, money-lending or trading and not agriculture; Gu are interested more in their cattle and the sale of Ghi rather than cultivation while K, being on the lowest rung of the social ladder, possess the least amounts of land.

The best quality of land is possessed by the Rajputs and the allied groups (M, S, T, Ra) and the Bo; the second grade lands are possessed by B, G and Gu while K possess the poorest quality of land. The quality of land possessed seems to be related partly to the privileges of the ruling caste and partly to the social status which for K is the lowest. Only the second rate lands were given as gift to B, while G and Gu possess the second rate since possessing a better status over K. Bo possess the best lands probably as they can afford to pay for it.

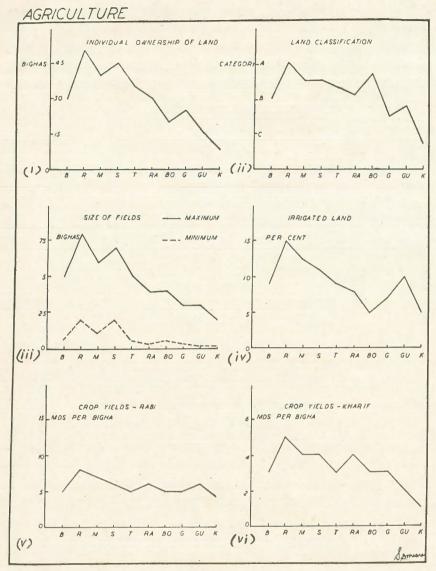


Fig. 1.

The size of the fields seems to be related to the amount of agricultural land possessed by each group. The land under irrigation seems to be related to the privileges that go with the social status and the quality of the land; while the crop yields show that the Rajputs and the allied groups (M, S, T, Ra) are perhaps not always the best cultivators and G

and Gu possessing lesser and second rate lands show equally good crop yields.

2. Cattle Wealth (Fig. 2): shows that Gu possess the largest number of cattle, G the largest number of sheep and goats, Bo the largest number

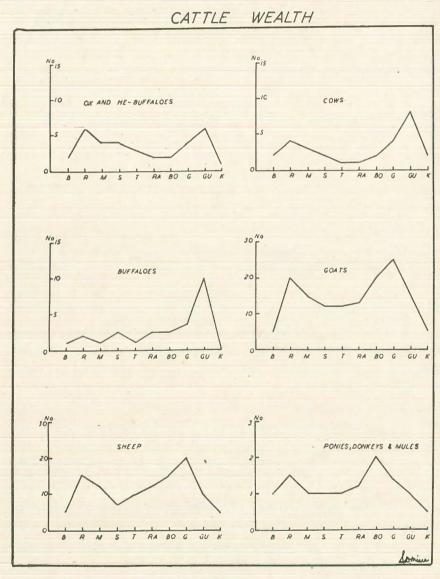


Fig 2.

of ponies and mules while the rest of the groups rank second in these possessions and K are at the bottom. The cattlewealth seems to be related partly to the amount of land possessed by the groups and partly to their respective emphasis on the types of economy. For example, the cattlewealth for R, M, S, T, Ra, B and K could easily be explained in terms of the land ownership but that in the case of G and Gu appears to be associated with the pastoral pursuits of the groups while more mules for Bo are perhaps associated with the trading profession. Again, the nature of emphasis seems to vary with pastoralism e.g. G have more sheep and goats and Gu have more of cattle. Perhaps, the physical conditions of environment seem to be related to this fact (besides of course, the traditions of the respective groups viz. wool trading for G and ghi business for Gu); G occupy steeper lands in Chamba which they do not seem to mind as their sheep can adjust. On the other hand, Gu avoid the steep slopes to which their cattle may not be able to adjust. The inferiority of K seems to be related directly to the least amounts of lands possessed by this group, the fact in turn being related to the lowest rank of K.

3. Housing Conditions (Fig. 3): shows that mostly R (and the allied groups), B, Bo, G and Gu possess double storeyed houses and also their houses are built in parts of some materials imported from outside; practically, all the communities except K seem to possess a separate shed for their cattle; in matters of cleanliness B are at the top and K at the bottom; all the communities except K use mostly the kerosene oil for lighting purposes and that the female segregation appears to be strongest among all the groups except G, Gu and K.

The type of house and the material of its construction are probably the matters related directly to the economic standings of the respective groups. For example, as said before, B supplement their incomes by occasional ciceronship; R (and the allied groups) have always had a superior social status in being the descendants of the ruling race while G and Gu are supposed to be rich people by the *Himachalis* due to the sale of wool and ghi respectively; while K's houses are the poorest since the group is the poorest in H.P.

# HOUSING CONDITIONS DOUBLE STOREYED HOUSE IMPORTED BUILDING MATERIAL USE OF KEROSENE PURDAH ALL FIGS ARE IN CENTS.

Fig. 3.

For most groups, the point of having a cattleshed seems to be related to the necessity of the respective groups, besides the point of financial capability; but this argument does not seem to support the case of the Brahmins as they neither have many cattle nor much land, still they insist on having a separate cattleshed for all the limited number of cattle they have. This could perhaps be explained by the habits inherent in the character of the group. Associated with the social superiority of the Brahmins seems to be their traditional neat way of life—as such they insist on having a separate cattleshed. Again, the point of cleanliness in the house seems to depend on the way of life a group is used to e.g. the houses of the Kanets (the untouchables in H.P.) are the dirtiest while those of the Brahmins are the neatest.

The use of kerosene is maximum for the Rajputs and the allied groups and Bo; second are B, G and Gu while K, again, is at the bottom. This item of domestic use, supposed to be a symbol of urbanisation in the rural parts of India, seems to be related directly to the financial capability of the group, besides the traditional neat way of life of the B.

The females seem to be segregated in all the groups except G, Gu and K where they are active participants in the outdoor work. In this matter B and Bo seem to stick to their traditions from the plains while R and the allied groups consider *purdah* as a matter of family prestige.

4. Food Habits (Fig. 4): The consumption of milk among the various groups seems to be related directly to the number of milk cattle possessed by each group. The order is perhaps clear enough from Fig. 4. The consumption of meat seems to be associated partly with the social and religious taboos (as in the case of B and Bo) and partly with the financial capability of the group (e.g. K who can't afford to eat meat more frequently). The consumption of wine also appears to be related to the taboos e.g. Bo and Gu stick strictly to the religious taboos set by their religions. For K the liquor is not a taboo and in the absence of any other healthy pastime, K finds wine as probably the only recourse to a little happiness. The consumption of opium varies with R, G and K on the top and S at the bottom. This fact, apart from the general laxity on taboos in these hills, seems to be related perhaps to the cold climate. In the plains most of the groups do not take opium and it appears that S. consume less of opium since the concentration of the group is limited to a zone where the climatic conditions are not as severe as they are higher up. K's consumption of opium could perhaps be interpreted

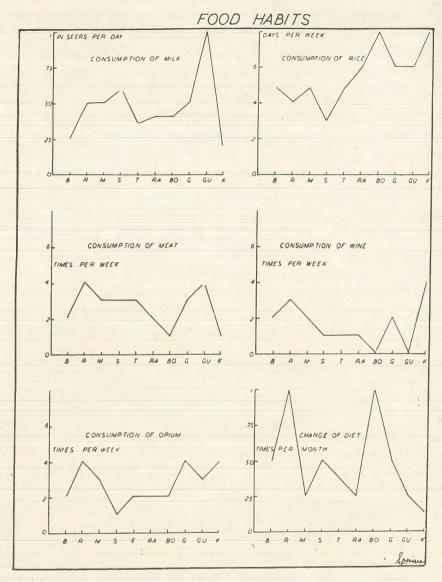
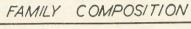


Fig. 4.

partly in the terms similar to those for wine and partly attributed to the illiteracy of the group which is the highest in this case.

The usual diet seems to be rice for all the groups and the departures from the routine are perhaps based on the financial capabilities of the various groups e.g. the change of diet is maximum for R and Bo and minimum for K.

5. Family Composition (Fig. 5): The number of married females exceeds the corresponding number of married males in all the polygamous



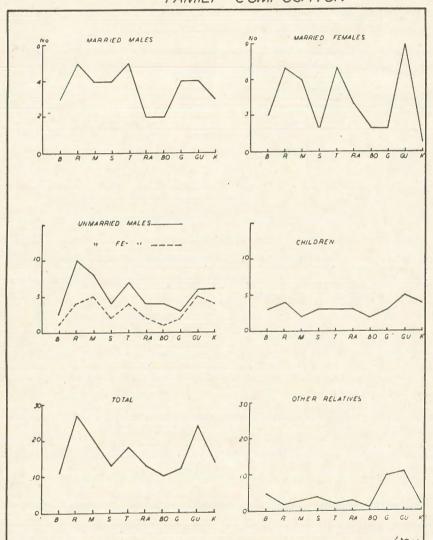


Fig. 5.

groups; but in general, the number of unmarried males is larger than the corresponding number of unmarried females. This seems to be related partly to the fact that there is, in all the groups, a general lack of females and also partly to another fact that usually a premium is put upon the birth of a male child in these patriarchal groups. The number of children per family seems to be large enough in view of the economic background of the groups and the situation seems to be rather hard for the group K. The total number appears to be large for all the families in general, perhaps, because each group has some other relatives living with them. The group ties appear to be stronger among the G and Gu perhaps because these move from place to place with their sheep and cattle and the larger the group the greater the security. The group ties appear to be the weakest among the Bo and K, probably since there is much to share by the relatives in the case of the former; and nothing to share in the case of K. As such the 'brotherhood' is diluted for Bo and K.

6. Extent of Female Segregation (Fig. 6): Regarding the participation of women in the economic lives of the social groups—the G, Gu and K are on the top. Their women seem to cooperate at par with the male folk in all outdoor work. For G and Gu it is perhaps necessary as the emphasis is on the sheep and cattlewealth and there is lot of work for the females. For K it is perhaps necessary for all the members to work and this necessity seems to be imposed by the poverty of the group. The 'food hunt' for a Kanet begins from his (and her also) teens to last till death. For the other 'higher' groups 'outdoor work is a disgrace to women'—goes the popular saying. But necessity is a hard task master and in these groups too the females do some outdoor work to an extent the 'group nobility' permits. When these ladies of 'noble' groups participate in social functions, that too is within limitations and under no circumstances is any freedom of behaviour permitted to them.

7. Social Attitudes (Fig. 7): Our graph shows that in an event of illness only B and S care to go to the doctor otherwise most of the groups believe in the 'ghost-treatment'. Apart from the scarce availability of medical aid and a general lack of adequate facilities for transport,

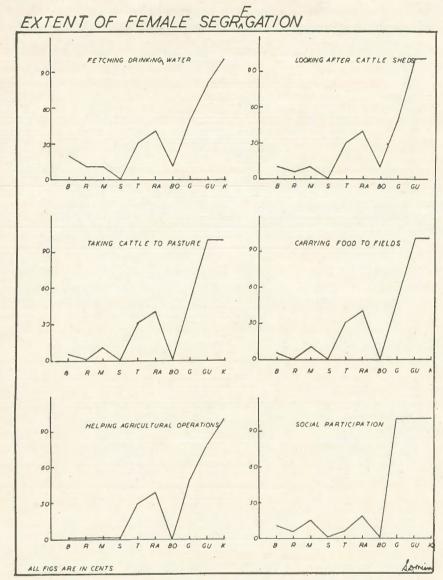


Fig. 6.

the ignorance of the people seems to play a dominant role. Of all the groups, B are the most literate and S probably are enlightened because of the proximity to the plains of the Punjab and U.P.; hence these communities care to go to the doctor. For Kanets, besides ignorance,

# SOCIAL ATTITUDES FAITH IN GHOSTS PER CENT PER CENT RA 80 G RA 80 G AGE OF MARRIAGE FOR BOYS AGE OF MARRIAGE FOR GIRLS 20 YEARS RA 80 G PER CENT GIALS GOING TO SCHOOL BOYS NOT GOING TO SCHOOL

Fig. 7.

poverty seems to be an important factor. The Rajputs, M, T, Ra, Bo and G seem to be a bit more enlightened than K, perhaps partly because of their superior positions and partly the more frequent visits to the towns than those of K.

The ties of joint family appear to be thickest among the Gu—a pastoral group for which agriculture is only of the secondary importance. The ties of the joint family seem to be strong among the Rathis also. This probably is related to the fact that Ra are only diluted Rajputs and as such the M, S, T (besides R) look down upon the group; but this group in order to maintain its strength probably keeps the blood kins and allied kins together. In practically all these groups, under the socio-economic set up, the members have separate entities but when, and if, the question comes of blood (and) or group-kin—all join hands. The separatist mentality is strongly manifested among the Bo and K. Here the land is divided, the houses are divided and there appears to be no mutual give-and-take in the routine social and economic life.

The age of marriage for boys seems to range generally between 18 and 20 years for all the groups except for B and Ra. The former told the candidate—« If we do not marry boys early, they are likely to fall into a bad life which we regard as sinful»; while the Rathis believe in « not postponing the pleasures of life». The age of marriage for girls is the lowest among R, M and T—for, these groups still believe in keeping their tradition of the Moghul days when they married their girls at an early age to save trouble with the Muslims who were then in power. The group S seems to be enlightened in the matter among all the Rajputs. This could perhaps be interpreted again in terms of a broader outlook facilitated by the proximity to the plains.

Literacy appears to be the highest for the groups B and S. It could perhaps be explained in terms of tradition of these groups viz. priestly mode of life for B where the knowledge of scriptures was essential, and the 'noble tradition' of Rajasthan for the groups S. Other groups regard education as a waste of time of time for «meanwhile», as they say, «the boy does some useful work in the field» (for R, M, T, Ra) or «the shop» (for Bo), or «the pasture» (for G and Gu) and «earns something» (for K). Except for B, the general level of literacy for girls is low, the peak in the case of Ra seems to be associated with the fact that the group aspires to come up in social status comparable to that of R.

8. Incidence of Crime (Fig. 8): The incidence of crime appears to be the highest for the Kanets and least for the Brahmins; probably, associated in the former case with illiteracy and poverty and in the latter case with literacy and the traditional status of the guru which the

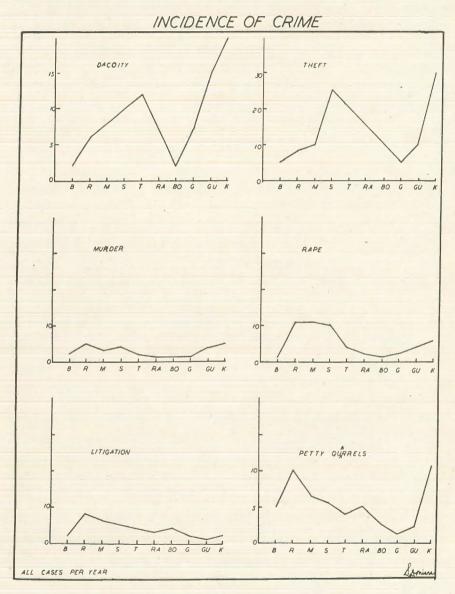


Fig. 8.

Brahmins always seem to have enjoyed. The maximum crime seems to be associated with the Rajput and allied groups—« They are the trouble makers»—remarked a Gaddi informant. Lesser incidence of crime than K, is associated probably with the comparatively better economic backgrounds of the respective groups.

9. Mobility (Fig. 9) (1): The walking distances covered by the male and the female members of the Gujar and Gaddis appear to be maximum; second come the members of the Kanet group, the rest fall in the third category. This point seems to be related to the economic necessities of the different groups viz. Gaddis and Gujars have to move with their herds of sheep and cattle from one place to another and also the Kanets have to move from place to place in search of jobs (2). The mode of conveyance that a group uses is probably a matter concerned directly with the financial ability of the groups whereas we find R and S at the top with Bo a close second.

#### B.—CULTURAL INTEGRATION

In our enquiry so far, the face of the land has been explained and the social and cultural lives of the different social groups of Himachal Pradesh have been studied in relation to the background information of the land and the economy. At this juncture we have probably brought this enquiry to a point where we could say that the fundamental economy of this little piece of land is agricultural and that all the social groups, despite the differences in their modes of life are related to this fundamental agricultural economy—some directly like peasants, some indirectly like the pastorals and the village artisans.

<sup>(1)</sup> The details in Fig. 9 regarding the use of various means of conveyance by the different groups, indicate only the minimum distance beyond which the individuals of the different groups are expected to need them.

<sup>(\*)</sup> However, it is perhaps necessary to remark that the total mobility and the frequency of movement over a given period of time would perhaps be maximum for a Rajput and the allied groups. The above analysis illustrates merely the general characteristics of the groups.

#### MOBILITY

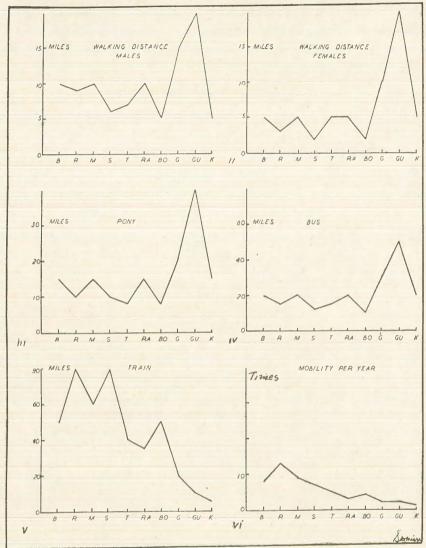


Fig. 9.

We have also seen that in the village society, stratified though it is by the barriers and taboos of the caste, there is work for every individual of every rank—from the village washerman, potter, cobler to a landlord. It would be seen, perhaps quite frequently, that all these different social groups carry on their lives quite smoothly in a single village and that the general rural scene, inspite of all these diversities, presents a picture in which all these differentials are combined into one complete whole.

The General Rural Scene: As a rule it is only the big land-owners, traders, higher artisans and the more respectable landlords who live in houses on which any skilled labour has been expanded. The walls of such houses are of bricks and outside it is often possible to see elaborate decorations of coarse forescoes which serve as a protection from an Evil Eye. In the towns the facades are, sometimes, ornamented with some carvings in wood or stone. But such a house, though grander and costlier than that of the peasant is even less comfortable. The rooms are low and ill-ventilated; the stairs and passages narrow and inconvenient. There is no provision for drainage and the water supply is often insanitary. The occupier of such a house keeps his women in seclusion, whose presence, to an outsider is known only by the jingling of their bichuas.

The walls of a peasant's house are made of mud or stone or in some places wattle and daub. The doors are of the rudest kind and the windows are only unglazed apertures in the walls. The roof is sometimes thatched, sometimes tiled with plates, or formed of beams resting on the walls which support a layer of hardened clay. The outer gate consists of a couple of cross-bars in which thorns are interwoven. The hut of the day-labourer or menial (usually a Kanet) is still ruder—the roof seldom waterproof, the coverings of straw and reeds resting on light rafters or bamboos.

After exploring the little village alley and climbing up into the house of a peasant we find a large hall inside. If cooking be going on, there being no chimney, we can only see through the gloom that substantial pillars of deodar support the roof. All over the floor, brass dishes and pots, baskets and receptacles for grain are scattered about in confusion, while from some hidden recess is heard the subdued murmer of the grinding of chakki. A ladder connects the first with the groundfloor through a trap door and here fodder is stored, grain is kept and the little lambs also sleep here.

The houses of the artisans' will be easily recognised from their surroundings—that of the carpenter with wood piled around it, that of the blacksmith with a little furnace closeby, the oilman have an ox at work on his kolhu, the dyer has brightly coloured thread hung out to dry, a pony or a bullock points to the house of a dhobi, the village bohra (trader) would be found squatting inside his shop amidst a bewildering collection of grain bags, oil jars and ledgers, or weighing grain and cleaning cotton in his verandah, or in the space before his shop. On his door posts he has the sundry marks to ward off the Evil Eye.

These are respectable craftsmen. Outside the village site is the settlement of Kanets, Kolis and Bajgis (all untouchables) or curriers, with high smelling tanning vats; or that of the weaver with his lines of yarn. The house of the potter may be recognised by piles of clay and pot sheds, his little kiln (bhatta) and the mule which he uses as a beast of burden.

The village abounds in animal life. Every house has one or more oxen, cows, sheep and goats. Cowardly yelping ours abound with a sort of trade union of their own, each quarter of the village being occupied by a separate pack. The wealthier residents have dogs of their own which they supply with food but the majority are ownerless, feeding upon the garbage flung upon the refuge heaps, and disputing with the vultures and jackals for the bodies of the dead cattle which are cast away on the outskirts of the settlement.

The social life of the village centres round the *Chaupal*. Visitors to the village are entertained here and they are also the halting places for the wandering *fakirs* and other never-do-wells of the kind. Here the police officer conducts his investigations when a crime is committed; the *patwari* prepares his village records, the village council (*Panchavat*) sits to deal with breaches of morality or violation of caste rules. When a girl in the village is married, the procession of the bridgegroom is accommodated here, and in the evenings the worthies assemble to smoke, gossip and discuss the local politics.

The village spring occupies the same place in the woman's life. Early in the morning one may watch lines of them passing to and fro with the waterpots poised on their heads. The little children cling to their mothers' skirts as they go for water and dabble their tiny feet in water

as the matrons fill their jars. During the spring season the waterline becomes a scene of active life when the stream is diverted through many channels into the fields.

As for the typical farmer of H.P., one may watch him in the working season as he starts at sunrise with his plough over his shoulder driving his pair of lean oxen before him. If the work be pressing he and his hired men pass the day in the fields, eating at noon the simple meal which one of his little girls bring to him. After a siesta in the shade and a pipe (hookah) he resumes his work and returns in the evening. If the work be light he bathes at the village spring, dines at home and enjoys the luxury of doing nothing. Then the day closes with a smoke and chat at the chaupal. Stretched on a mat or a crazy cot, he sleeps the sleep of fatigue—heedless of the howls of the jackals on the outskirts of the village answered by the pack of pariah curs. The care of his fields is ever on his mind—the amount of rain and the period at which it falls may suit one crop and ruin other ...

It is a dull monotonous life. He has little knowledge of the great world save that which he picks up when he goes on a pilgrimage or is summoned to attend the courts as a party witness in a case. The village and its petty concerns supply his only subject of conversation, except when a wandering friar halts at the *chaupal* and describes to the wondering audience the marvels he has seen. Literature is unknown to him, save when he listens to a folk tale told around the fire kindled in the open on a winter evening, or hears an occasional recital of a religious book or a ballad. But hard as his lot often is, he is quite content if he can escape the greater evils, famine and pestilence; and whether he has means to marry his children and perform the death rites for his relations according to the usages of his caste. At other times he is satisfied to stroll round his tiny fields and watch the ripening crops and the white oxen chewing the cud at the stall.

There is no more variety in the life of the woman than that of the man. Marriage, which is the destiny of every member of the sex, is the great event of her life. To arrange the marriage of his daughters is the most pressing duty of a father. No scandal is so grievous as that which results from the presence of a grown up unmarried daughter in the house.

SOCIAL GROUPS IN HIMACHAL PRADESH

But marriage, here, involves greater difficulty than in the western lands, because the restrictions which surround the selection of a partner are so numerous and intricate that the field of choice is very narrowly defined, and if a child is to be suitably mated, the engagement must be made quite early, though the marriage may come later on; in no case are the boy or girl permitted to indulge in their inclinations.

Besides cooking food and spinning, the village women are good dyres. They are specially skilled in the indigenous method by which the spotted cloth known as *Chunri* or *Orni* is made. She is the chief carrier and beast of burden. She brings water from the spring, carries the sheaves to the threshing floor, bears loads of wood, chaff, fuel or vegetables. One of her main duties is the tending of cattle. When still a little girl she drives cows to pasture, is trained to milk them, and to prepare curds (dahi) and clarified butter (ghi). Her most laborious work is that of husking and grinding grain.

Thus the peasant woman, from early morning to nightfall is kept busily engaged in preparing food, looking after children, tending the cattle, spinning and doing such field-work as she is asked to perform. Her only relaxation is the chat with her cronies at the waterfall. She is cheery, hardworking, and devoted to the care of her household as she understands it. If her language is coarse, her person less clean than might be desired—these faults are largely associated with her environment; and those who know her best learn to respect her.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Thankful acknowledgements are due to Professor H.J. Fleure, Professor C.D. Forde and Professor C. Von-Heimindorf—all in London, for their helpful suggestions and criticisms.

#### TABLE I

#### INDEX TO TABLE AND FIGURES

#### A. THE ECONOMY.

#### 1. Agriculture :

- (1) How much agricultural land do you possess (in bighas)?
- (II) What category of land do you have?
- (III) What is the size of your biggest/smallest fields (in bighas)?
- (iv) How much of your cultivated land is irrigated (in percent)?
- (v) What are the crop yields in rabi (in maunds per bigha)?
- (vi) What are the crop yields in Kharif (in maunds per bigha)?

#### 2. Cattle Wealth :

- (1) How many ox and he-buffaloes have you?
- (II) How many cows do you have?
- (III) How many buffaloes do you have?
- (IV) How many goats do you have?
- (v) How many sheep do you have?

#### B. THE SOCIAL LIFE.

#### 3. Housing Conditions:

- (1) Do you have a double storeyed house?
- (II) Do you import material for house construction?
- (III) Do you have a separate nohra?
- (IV) How many times per week do you clean the house?
- (v) Do you use kerosene?
- (vi) Are there separate apartments for women?

#### 4. Food Habits :

- (1) How much milk per head per day is consumed in your family (in seers)?
- (II) How many times per week do you eat rice?
- (III) How many times per week do you eat meat?
- (IV) How many times per week do you drink wine?
- (v) How many times per week do you take opium?
- (vi) How many times per month do you change your diet?

#### 5. Family Composition:

- (1) How many married males are in your family?
- (II) How many married females are in your family?
- (III) How many unmarried males/females are in your family?
- (iv) How many children are in your family?
- (v) What is the total size of your family?
- (vi) How many other relatives live with you?

#### 6. Extent of Female Segregation:

- (1) Do the ladies in your family fetch drinking water?
- (II) Do they look after the cattle?
- (III) Do they take cattle to pastures?
- (IV) Do they carry food to the fields?
- (v) Do they help in agricultural operations?
- (vi) Do you permit them to attend social functions?

#### 7. Social Attitudes :

- (1) Perhaps you have more faith in ghosts and deohar than doctors?
- (II) Do you have a joint-family?
- (III) At what age do you marry your boys?
- (IV) At what age do you marry your girls?
- (v) Do you think that sending children to school is a waste of time?
- (vi) Do you send your girls to school?

#### 8. Incidence of Crime:

- (1) How many cases of decoity occur per year in your village?
- (11) How many cases of theft occur per year in your village?
- (III) How many cases of murder occur per year in your village?
- (iv) How many cases of rape occur per year in your village?
- (v) How many cases of litigation occur per year in your village?
- (vi) How many petty quarrels take place per year in your village?

#### 9. Mobility:

- (1) How many miles do your males go on foot?
- (II) How many miles do your females go on foot?
- (III) For what distance do you need a pony?
- (IV) For what distance do you need a bus?
- (v) For what distance do you need a train?
- (vi) How many times per year do you go out of your village?

TABLE 1 and FIGURES.

TABLE 1 and 1 would																		
	A												В					
Social Groups	1						2					3						
	(1)	(11)	(111)	(IV)	(v)	(vI)	(1)	(11)	(111)	(IV)	(v)	(ii)	(1)	(11)	(111)	(IV)	(v)	(vI)
В	30	В	$\frac{5/\frac{1}{2}}{8/2}$	9	5	3	2	2	1	5	5	1	60	10	20	80	50	60
R	50	A A/B	$\frac{8/2}{6/1}$	15 12	8 7	5 4	6	3	2	20 15	15 12	1.5	80 75	20 18	50	60	70 65	70 65
M S	45	A/B	$\frac{0}{1}$	11	6	4	4	2	2	12	7	1	70	15	50	70	60	60
T	35	A/B	$5/\frac{1}{2}$	9	5	3-	3	1	1	12	10	1	65	12	30	65	55	55
Ra	30	B	4/1	8	6	4	2	1	2	13	12	1.2	60	10	40	50	50	50
Bo G	20 25	A B/C	$\frac{4/\frac{1}{2}}{3/\frac{1}{h}}$	5 7	5 5	3	2 4	2 4	2 3	$\frac{20}{25}$	15 20	$\frac{2}{1.5}$	80	25 10	60	55 40	60	60
GU	15	B/C	$\frac{3}{\frac{1}{4}}$	10	6	2	6	8	10	15	10	1.2	85	20	50	40	45	40
K	8	C	$2/\frac{1}{8}$	5	4	1	1	2	0	5	5	.5	50	5	10	20	15	20
	В																	
	4				5						6							
	(1)	(11)	(111)	(IV)	(v)	(vI)	(1)	(11)	(111)	(IV)	(v)	(vI)	(1)	(11)	(111)	(IV)	(v)	(vI)
В	.25	5	2	2	2	.5	3	3	2/1	3	11	5	20	10	5	5	0	10
R	.5	4	4	3	4	1	5	8	10/4	4	27	2	10	5	0	0	0	5
M	.5	5	3	2	3	.25	4	6	8/5	2	20	4	10	10	10	10	0	$\begin{array}{c} 15 \\ 2 \end{array}$
S	.6	3	3	1	1 2	.5	4 5	8	4/2 7/4	3	13 18	5 2	$\frac{0}{30}$	$\frac{0}{30}$	30	30	30	4
Ra	.4	6	2	1	2	.25	2	4	4/2	-3	13	4	40	40	40	40	40	20
Во	.4	7	1	0	2	1	2	2	4/1	2	10	2	10	10	0	0	0	0
G	.5	6	-3	2	4	.5	4	2	$\frac{3}{2}$ $\frac{6}{5}$	3	$\begin{array}{c} 12 \\ 24 \end{array}$	10 12	50 80	50 100	50 100	50 100	50 80	100
Gu K	1 .2	6 . 7	4	0 4	3 4	.125	4 3	9	6/4	5	14	2	100	100	100	100	100	100
	7					8						9						
	(1)	(11)	(111)	(IV)	(v)	(vI)	(1)	(11)	(111)	(IV)	(v)	(vI)	(1)	(11)	(III)	(IV)	(v)	(vI)
70					-								10		15	20	50	8
BR	80	50	18 18	14 13	40 60	20 15	2 6	5 8	2 5	$\frac{1}{6}$	8	5	8	5 3	10	15	80	12
M	90	35	19	14	50	17	8	10	3	6	6	8	10	5	15	20	60	10
S	70	30	20	15	40	15	10	25	4	5	5	7	6	2	10	12	80	8
T	90	35	19	13	50	15	12	20	2	4	4	5	7	5 5	8 15	15 20	40 35	6 4
Ra Bo	95 95	20	18 20	16 17	60	18	7 2	15 10	1	2	3	8 4	10	2	8	10	50	5
G	98	30	20	16	70	5	7	5	1	2	2	3	15	10	20	30	20	2
Gu	99	-60	20	16	80	3	15	10	4	4	1	4	20	20	40	50	10	2
K	100	20	19	15	90	2	20	30	5	6	2	10	5	5	15	20	5	1

Source: Field work.

## REMARKS ON THE GEOMORPHOLOGY, PEDOLOGY AND GROUND WATER POTENTIALITIES

OF

THE SOUTHERN ENTERENCE TO THE NEW VALLEY

PART ONE

THE LOWER NUBA AREA, EGYPT, U.A.R.

BY

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#### ABSTRACT

The area concerned, occupies a portion of the Lower Nuba Land. This area is one of the driest regions of the world and displays a complex of geomorphological and pedological features, where both aridity and wet climatic conditions are manifested.

In this area, we recognize two sharply differentiated regions, in each one of which a particular landscape is predominant.

These regions are:

- 1.—The Lower Nuba Plains; and
- 2.—The Lower Nuba Tableland.

In the Lower Nuba area, although the surface is almost degraded with regard to soils (and vegetation), alluvial and lake-like deposits are occasionally preserved in the shallow topographical depressions as well as in the old drainage lines. These deposits are provisionally termed soils.

When discussing the factors affecting the morphology and the soil formation in the Lower Nuba area, mentioning of the geology and climatology (including both the old wet climatic conditions and the present aridity) is essentially made.

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In the Lower Nuba area, the strata of special hydrologic interest, are composed of «Nubian Type Sandstone». Through out that wide area, ground water is obtainable from the sandstone strata only in the vicinity of El Dakka (some 105 km. to the south of Aswan). Drilling operations made by the Ministry of High Dam, proved the presence of a water table in the sandstone strata which depend totally on the Nile. Discussion of the ground water potentialities of the Lower Nuba area after the construction of the High Dam, is briefly made.

Attached to this paper, there are two appendices, one of them dealing with the occurrence of Mousterian Implements and the other dealing with the vegetation, in the Lower Nuba Area.

#### I.—INTRODUCTION

The Lower Nuba Area, one of the driest regions of the world, displays a complex of geomorphological and pedological features, where both aridity and wet climatic conditions are manifested. Although aridity is now dominant in that area, the main physiographic features are the direct result of water abrasion. This means that prior to the present arid nature of the climate, less arid or, even strong wet periods were prevailing in that area at least as far back as the late Tertiary and early Quaternary.

The area under discussion (at least 15.000 km²) comprises a portion of the wild desert west of the Nile course between Wadi Halfa and Aswan (1). To this area, the Desert Institute of Egypt, arranged during the early months of 1962, an expedition with the object of making a rapid integrated survey in the fields of geology, geomorphology, soils and hydrology. Among the topics which were primarily taken into consideration, was the elucidation of the relationship between the Nile Valley in the area south of Aswan and the southern portion of El-Kharga depression (this area constitutes a portion of the New Valley Project Area), and to find out whether in some older periods (late Palaeogene to early Neogene) there had been some sort of a drainage line con-

tinuing from the «Red Sea Highland» to the «Low Land» west of the present Nile course.

The Lower Nuba area is essentially occupied by varicoloured sandstones of epicontinental origin, which have a thickness rarely exceeding 150 m. and which are developed into gently undulating plains with mild changes in relief, sloping on the one hand towards El-Kharga Depression and on the other hand towards the Nile Valley. Towards the northern portion of the area, the sandstone beds are overlain by shallow marine beds of limestone and shales, belonging to the Cretaceous and Eocene and having a thickness of about 300 m. These beds, constitute the «southern region» of the «Limestone Plateau» west of the Nile (Mitwally 1954) and rise abruptly from the sandstone lowland. In the central portion of the Lower Nuba area, acid igneous rocks appear on the surface, presumably on the crest of a major swell oriented in the NE-SW direction. In the vicinity of Aswan similar outcrops are found and may belong to another swell oriented in the N.NW-S.SE direction. In both localities, the igneous outcrops are almost «peneplained» and are occasionally covered with sheets of drift sand.

Regionally speaking, the Lower Nuba Area occupies a portion of the stable foreland side of the «Abrabo-Nubian Shield» and is characterized by the occurrence of a thin sedimentary section, having a thickness of about 500 m. This section shows a considerable content of the «loose clastic material» indicating, therefore, the location of that area closer to some old shorelines (at least during the Cretaceous and the Lower Eocene). In the Lower Nuba area, the surface is affected by a major swell and a major synclinal basin, both of which are oriented in the NE-SW direction. Fault structures are also detected in that area (at least two systems, an E-W system and a N-S system) and are presumably related to «vertical movement of blocks within the basement rocks» (Map I-II).

In discussing the factors, upon which the morphology of the Lower Nuba area has been dependent, we must mention in the first place the regional aspects of geology. In the second place, we have the wet climatic conditions before the present dominant aridity. In the Lower Nuba area, although the average annual rain fall is 00", the landscape is dissected by a number of dry streams (wadis) which flow mainly into the

<sup>(1)</sup> Parts of this area will be covered with the water of Lake Nasser after the construction of the High Dam.

Nile Valley. Most important of these are Wadi Kurkur (length about 50 km.) and Wadi Kalabsha (length about 100 km.). These two wadis have their intake areas located in the Cretaceous and Eocene Plateau (elevation 500 m ±) and are characterized by the occurrence of conspicous terraces existing at levels heigher than their present floor. Other wadis, also going into the Nile Valley, are found in our area but these are rather short and have their intake areas only located in the «Lower Nuba Plains» (elevation over 200 m.). These wadis have their impression on the surface either as narrow gorges or wide sloping vallies and their floors are mostly covered with drift sand. Aside from these, short internal drainage lines are found in this area and are best examplified by those going into Hatiet Abu Riheiwa and into El-Kharga depression (elevation below 200 m.). This type of drainage is a perfect indication of aridity. Aridity is also indicated in the Lower Nuba area by the complete degradation of the surface both with regard to soils and to vegetation, and by the deposition of drift sand formations especially in the topographically low regions (Map III).

Not much has been written about the geomorphology, pedology and ground water potentialities of the Lower Nuba area. However, in modern literature, information of general importance can be found in the work of Ball (1902), Blanckenhorn (1921), Hume (1925), Clayton (1935-1937), Hellstrom (1940), Murrey (1952), Mitwalley (1953), Ezzat and El-Ayouti (1961) and few others. In this paper, it is meant to give a short account of these aspects as based on the observations we made during the course of our expedition (the soil problem in the Lower Nuba area will be the subject of a separate paper now in preparation by our colleague M. A. Abdel Sallam, the Head of the Soil Unit in the Desert Institute).

#### II.—GEOMORPHOLOGICAL ASPECTS

In the Lower Nuba area we recognize two sharply differentiated regions, in each one of which, a particular landscape is predominant:

a) The «Lower Nuba Plains»; essentially built of sandstones and crossed by a number of dry streams and shallow depressions where

- sandy loam and other types of detrital material are frequently present.
- b) The «Lower Nuba Tableland»; this is a limy rough plateau, developed generally into the «Hamada type of desert» but may be locally developed into a «hammocky type of desert known as Kharafish».

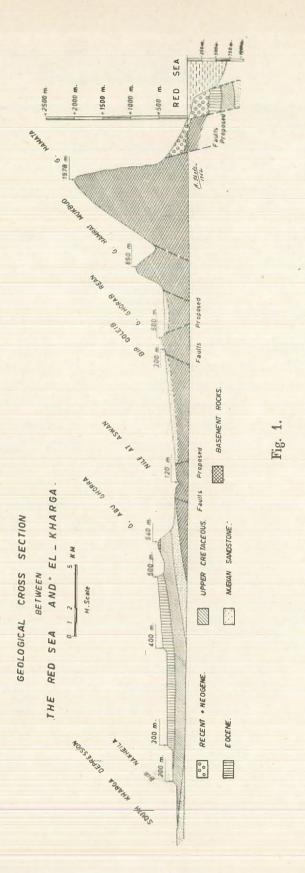
Eastward from our area, a third region, of particular morphological interest, is present and will be described as the «Red Sea Highland». The relationship between the three regions is illustrated in Fig. 1.

#### The Lower Nuba Plains:

The lower Nuba Plains cover most of the southern and eastern portions of our area and are dominated, roughly in the North-South direction, by the very narrow and elongate valley now occupied by the Nile. These plains are almost horizontal (average height + 200 m. above sea level or 110 m. above the Nile bed south of Aswan) (1) and are traversed in a NE-SW direction by a broad ridge (presumably of structural origin) where the elevation increases to more than + 300 m. From this ridge, now acting as a dead watershed, and in all directions, the plains gradually loose some of their altitude. Geologically speaking, the plains are essentially built of Nubian Sandstone (the age of which is not carefully determined, however, according to Attia-1955 a Senonian age has been given to similar beds in the district east of Aswan. Again some samples from the sandstone beds were collected for age determination in the USSR and the results will be given when available). The sandstone beds are of different kinds; from top to base they are distinguished into the following units:

5. Abu Rihewa Beds; composed of yellow marly sandstones, interbedded with grey shale bands; near top the sandstone is somewhat conglomeratic and weathers dirty brown flaky (thickness 30 m ±).

<sup>(1)</sup> Unless we mention the elevation in relation to the Nile, the figures that will be given denote the elevations above sea level.

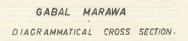


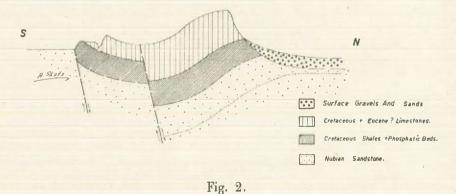
- 4. Beds with pisolitic iron-ore bands; similar to above, more sandy (thickness 15 to  $20 \text{ m} \pm$ ).
- 3. Abu Odam Beds; composed of grey and white sandstone, cross bedded, with bands of conglomeratic and/or quartzitic sandstone, weather resistant (thickness 10 to 15 m).
- 2. Masakin El-Boum Beds; composed of dark brown and black ferrogenous sandstones and quartizites, cross bedded and conglomeratic, resistant to weathering (thickness 20 to 30 m±).
- 1. El-Dakka Beds; composed of vari-coloured sandstones of medium hardness with a cap of hard ferrogenous sandstone (thickness  $30 \text{ m} \pm$ ).

Throughout the whole area, the Nubian sandstone beds are variably resistant to weathering, a phenomenon depending at least on hardness and composition of the rock units. For example, the top two units, dominating most of the plain area towards the foot of the escarpment bounding the tableland area, being less resistant to weathering, are almost peneplained. Locally even shallow depressions are distinguished within the peneplained surface, to which short internal drainage lines are directed and where ephemeral lakes may have been occasionally formed. On the other hand, the lower units are more resistant to weathering and are more dominant in the eastern portion i.e. close to the Nile. For this reason and for other reasons which will be discussed later, the relief in this particular area is more irregular and the drainage lines are rather defined and deep. Another striking feature about the lithology of the sandstone beds is the lack of « polymictic conglomerate accumulations» (with the exception of quartz pebbles noted in the Abu Riheiwa Beds as well as in Masakin El-Boum Beds). This phenomenon is of particular morphological importance as it « may indicate that the smooth relief» in the pre-Nubian surface « was probably a peneplain formed by intensive chemical weathering» (Yallouse and Knetsch-1954). In our area, extensive exposures of the «pre-Nubian rocks» (composed essentially of acid igneous rocks which are cut through, both in the E-W and in the NE-SW direction, by dykes of basic igneous rocks) are known in two localities, namely south of G. Umm Shaghir and to the

south of Aswan. In these two localities we did not have the opportunity to make a close study of the relationship between such rocks and the Nubian leyers. However, we may refer to the work of Attia (1955) where he reported a kaolinized formation at the contact of the two main units, thus supporting the view of chemical weathering long before the deposition of the Nubian Sandstone. At one locality in our area, about 30 km. to the west of Aswan, the top portion of a small «basement exposure» (composed mainly of acid igneous rocks) is present, and is almost covered with modern sandy deposits with which are associated rounded and subangular fragments of such rocks and also the overlying Nubian Sandstone. The rounded igneous fragments are presumably the remains of an ancient conglomerate locally formed prior to the accumulation of the Nubian layers.

In the plain area we usually meet isolated hills (butts), which in all probabilities represent the end product of a disappearing landscape and are also associated with vertical movement of block structures. These are particularily noticeable at Gabal Marawa + 270 m. (Fig. 2), G. Barg El-Sahab + 330 m. (Fig. 3) and G. Umm Shaghir + 310 m. At least in G. Marawa and G. Barg El-Sahab the cap rocks are composed





of weather resistant limestones (Cretaceous and Eocene) and calcareous tufa (Pleistocene, particularily preserved at Barg El-Sahab). The same

#### G. BARG EL SAHAB DIAGRAMMATICAL CROSS SECTION.

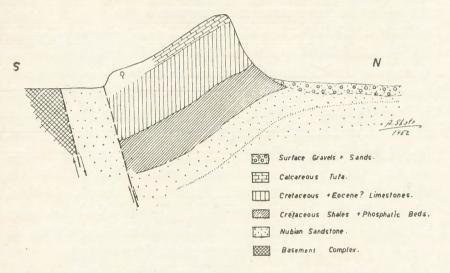


Fig. 3.

rock units constitute the bulk of « Sinn El-Kaddab Plateau», generally to the north and west of such isolated hills.

At the approach to the «Nile Valley» the plain surface is rather rough and shows a number of «conical volcano—like hills». From north to south, these are especially noted at G. Alisa (+278 m.), G. Abu Steit (+281 m.), G. Nassab (approximately +300 m.), North Ineiba Hills (+396 m.) and North Abu Simbil Hills (+320 m.). Almost without exception, these hills are composed of the ordinary «Nubian Sandstone beds» (lower members), into which there are indications of the later intrusion of siliceous iron solution. Similar occurrences as well as volcanicity were described by Sandford (1933) in the Southern portion of the Libyan Desert, which he assigned to the late Tertiary and early Quaternary times. The lithology, together with the possible existence of «positive elements in the Pre-Nubian surface» may account for the

regional roughness of the plain surface and for the local development of such conspicuous elevations (Plate I).

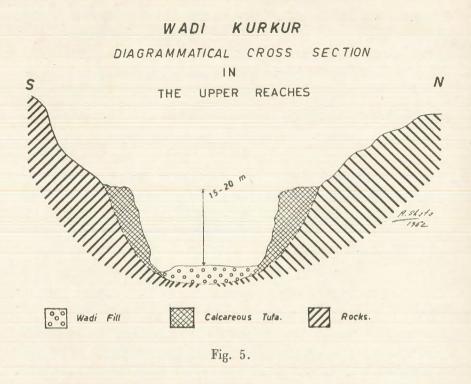
The surface of the Lower Nuba Plains is dominated by dry insequent vallies, most of which are indicated on the topographic maps of the Survey Department (Map IV). The drainage of such vallies can be distinguished into two systems; the Nile system and the internal system. The latter is subdivided into the «eastern internal system» going into a number of shallow depressions (Hatia) and the «western internal system» going into El-Kharga Depression. Generally speaking, the « wadi beds» are covered with a mantle of alluvium, gravels and blown sand. Locally in the courses of Wadi Kurkur and Wadi Kalabsha, old river terraces with well worn boulders, gravels and pebbles are recognized (Map III and Fig. 4). These terraces rise locally more than 15 m. above the present wadi beds and exist at an altitude of + 250 m. (at least 160 m. above the present Nile Bed south of Aswan). In Wadi Kurkur, which has its intake areas located in the «Tableland area» (±500m.) we recognize thick deposits of calcareous tufa filling the original course of the dry stream near its upper portion. These deposits were then cut through by ravines leaving practically vertical walls of the tufa which now rise some 15 m. above the dry stream floor (Fig. 5). In the lower portion of Wadi Kurkur (at Masakin El-Boum), local patches of calcareous tufa (massive and concretionary forms) are reported in the wadi bed above the sandstone layers. This point may lead us to discuss the evolution of the courses of such dry vallies. Accepting the view that the valley now occupied by the Nile acted as the base level for all the drainage lines tributary to it (reference in the first place will be given to W. Kurkur, W. Kalabsha. W. Tushka and then to a number of short vallies), and accepting also the view that the calcareous tufa is of Lower Pleistocene age (Ball 1905), we are justified to assume that the initial phase in the development of such wadis existed prior to that period. This assumption has a certain bearing on the evolution of the Nile Valley south of Aswan. Notwithstanding the idea given by Awad (1933) that the Nile in that particular area «displays all signs of a very immature stream», which lead many workers to conclude that «the present Nile came into existence during the diluvial period» we may agree with Ball



# WADI KURKUR DIAGRAMMATICAL CROSS SECTION IN THE MIDDLE PORTION Im Occorded Wadi Fill Postification of the second of the sec

(1939), Yallouse and Knetsch (1954) and others that the original valley is at best Upper Pliocene. For some reasons, we may think that this valley was, at least at one stage of its evolution, chocked by material carried by the lateral derivatives, particularily those of the Eastern Desert (e. g. W. El Allaqui). Remnants of such material were reported at El-Dakka at a level rarely exceeding + 130 m. (40 above the Nile bed) and are dominated by cobbles and boulders derived mainly from basic igneous rocks.

Fig. 4.



Summing the geomorphological observations we made in the «Lower Nuba Plains, the following will be mentioned:

- 1. The changes in the degree of hardness of the Nubian Sandstone layers and its influence on the relief of the plain surface.
- 2. The local intrusion of siliceous and/or siliceous iron oxide solutions into the sandstone beds and its influence on the irregularity of the landscape especially in the eastern portions of the area i.e. close to the Nile Valley. Such intrusions are locally associated with the E-W system of faults and hence produce a series of quartzitic dykes of the same orientation which are also resistant to weathering.
- 3. The occurrence of two important swell axes (presumably underlain by horst blocks in the basement rocks) in the plain area, which exposed the basement rocks (acid igneous rocks) or brought it close to the surface, are also responsible for the roughness of the plain surface.

- 4. The occurence of lacustraine deposits in the local shallow depressions (playas); these are composed of sandy loam with thin intercalations of gravel. These deposits, occurring locally in the form of terraces rising few meters above the dry stream floor and containing locally shells of Melana sp., differ in texture and composition from the present wadi sediments. Such sediments are either exposed or veneered with a mantle of detrital material. Again, in Wadi Kurkur (Fig. 5), the calcareous tufa forms conspicuous terraces rising at least 15 m. above the present wadi bed. All such occurrences are indications of wetter or even humid climatic conditions than that prevailing today. In two sites fossil wood logs are reported (Map III), while the fragments exist almost allover the area and at different levels (± 200 m.). Although we are not certain about the period when such logs were deposited, we may associate them with the Tertiary and post-Tertiary period of volcanic outbursts, lavas and hot springs (Sandford 1933). These can also be correlated with the fossil wood occurrences in the extensive gravel plains south and east of the Qattara Depression (assigned by the present writer during his work with the Standard Oil Co of Egypt in 1948 to the post-Miocene period).
- 5. The occurrence of extensive sand sheets (with rare development of sand dunes) are noted in almost all wind shadows overlooking the Nile on the western side, as well as in the «lowland» south and west of «Sinn El-Kaddab Escarpment»; these sands, degradation of the surface with regard to soil and vegetation, domination of ventifacts and erosion pavements (deflation), indicate the influence of the arid nature of the climate on the landscape.

At this stage of our knowledge, it may be convinient to raise the question of the origin and the evolution of the Lower Nuba plains. In this connection, discussion of the following hypotheses will be made:

a) The Aeolean Hypothesis; particularly developed by Mitwalli (1953) and others. According to this hypothesis, which has a regional application in the Libyan Desert, the wind-blown sand sweeping freely across the surface, has a strong erosive effect on all rocks with which it comes into contact. In most cases the erosive action

of the wind tends to wear away any landforms which may interrupt the continuity of peneplanation in the region. The surfaces which result from such a phenomenon has been described as « surfaces of maximum desert denudation» and has been given the name « desert peneplains» by Sandfond (1933).

- b) The Shore-Line Hypothesis; developed by Yallouse and Knetsch (1954). The main elements in that hypothesis is the probable occurrence of a belt of sandy sediments of shelf character (indicating near shore conditions during the Cretaceous and Eocene), bordering the limestone areas in that particular portion of Egypt (the limestone areas have been taken to give an idea of the deeper portions of the sea at that time). This condition allowed « most of the loose clastic sediments» in that belt «to be eroded in later times» thus creating, besides the usually steep marginal scarp of the limestone plateau, « the conspicuous morphological depression between the limestone scarp west of Kalabsha and the present Nile south of Aswan».
- c) The Pedimentation Hypothesis; developed by the present writer. According to this hypothesis, the Lower Nuba Plains represent the recession of a mountain front essentially due to lateral erosion by streams coming from the west and south. Although now dry, such streams are still indicated on the surface by Wadi Kalabsha, Wadi Kurkur and their tributaries. This process has been intensified by two important factores, the lithology and the regional structure. Stream erosion, representing thus, the initial phase in the evolution of such plains, was followed by a regional rise of the surface, presumably in association with the two main swells known in our area (Umm Shaghir and Aswan). This phenomenon resulted in the lowering of the occurring wadi floors (at least in Wadi Kurkur and Wadi Kalabsha, as evidenced by the terraces composed of well worn pebbles, cobbles and boulders and locally calcareous tufa) and in the contemporaneous development of the courses of the short wadis draining the plain area into the depression now occupied by the Nile (which was of course in a process of

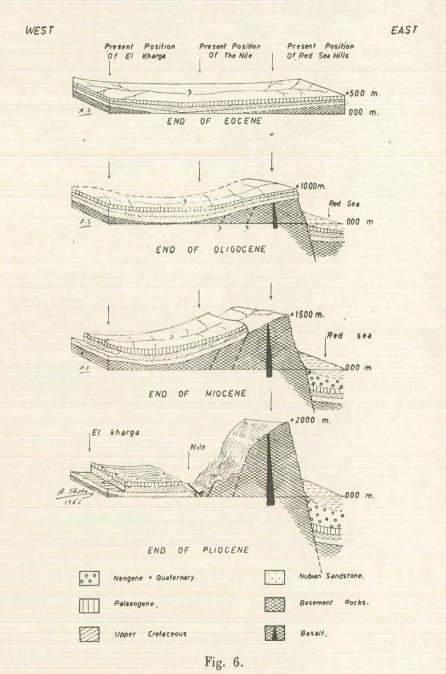
degradation). All that took place in a period postdating the accummulation of the tufa (early or Middle Pleistocene). The last phase in the evolution of the Lower Nuba Plains result from the rejuvenation processes accompanying aridity. These are not only manifested in the many physiographic features characterizing the landscape, such as the extensive drift sand accummulations, polishing of grains, occurrence of ventifacts and pavement plains but also in the complete absence of animal life, occurrence of scanty vegetation (only visible in low lying places and wadi beds where drainage water has once supported growth) and eventually destruction of almost all the soil cover except in the old «playa» regions where we have saline dust and sandy loam.

#### The Lower Nuba Tableland:

This constitutes the southern extermity of the «Limestone Plateau» covering most of the area to the west of the Nile (Mitwally, 1953). As elsewhere in the southern region, the plateau surface is underlain by compact Eocene and Cretaceous limestone which is generally developed into the «Hamada Type of desert» (Plate I and Fig. 6). During our stay in the area we had the opportunity to examine closely the plateau surface only in few places, namely at G. Abu Ghorra, Kurkur, El Sinn and eventually Dungul. It is not convenient, therefore, to give a detailed account of the occurring features but we shall only refere to the points of regional morphological interest. These will be summerized as follows:

1. The tableland area occupies a portion of the main synclinal structure included between «Umm Shaghir swell» to the southeast and «Tarfawai—Abu Baiyan Swell» to the northwest (all these structures are oriented in the NE-SW direction Fig. 1). The morphology of this area is, therefore, characterized by «table mountains» noted at Abu Ghorra (+ 550 m.), Kurkur (+ 375 m.), El Barga (+ 344 m.), El Sinn (+ 411 m.) and Dungul (+ 255 m.); and by «Plateau escarpments». In our area two escarpments are present which rise abruptly from the «Lower Nuba

#### EVOLUTION OF THE LOWER NUBA



Lowland» and take the form of almost continuous walls occurring at right angle and facing east and south.

- 2. Underlying the limestone cap, a successive series of strata, tilted regionaly west and north and differing in hardness, are preserved in the escarpment which on morphological basis could be compared with the well known «Cuestas» of Gabal El Egma in South Central Sinai (Awad 1952). In both localities, these are typical of arid and semi-arid nature of the climatic condition (the top portion of the escarpment face is rather steep and is followed underneath by «debris slopes» and then «talus cones»; the cones are then followed by a «bouldery surface» before it merges into the «Lower Nuba Plains» (Map V).
- 3. In many places, the escarpments are dissected by a complex « Wadi» system, which join into two main lines, Wadi Kurkur (draining most of the eastern escarpment) and Wadi Kalabsha (draining most of the southern escarpment). Throughout the year, these wadis are always dry, except in rare cases' when the « Monsoon Winds » escape to that locality and cause some precipitation. However, in late Tertiary and early Quaternary times such dry streams, for a part of the year, at any rate, have been active drainage arteries and their channels could have been excavated mainly during the same period. As stated before, stream erosion was essentially responsible for the origin of the «Lower Nuba Plains». To this we can add that stream erosion, aided by faulting, brought the general outline of the escarpments as we see them today (two fault systems have been detected; an east-west system noted at Dungul and at El Sinn, and a north-south system noted eastward of Kurkur and Abu Ghorra Fig. 2). The topography of that particular region has since been slightly modified by the arid conditions, which allowed a very slow retreat of the «hill side» through main physical conditions including the down hill movement of debris under gravity.
- 4. In almost all the sites we visited, the rim of the plateau is capped by deposits of «calcareous tufa» of different thicknesses (these have been assigned to the Pleistocene age, though whether they date from the early or late part of that period has not been determined). These Bulletin, t. XXXV.

are particularly noticeable at Kurkur + 375 m., and between El Sinn +411 m. and Dungul + 265 m. (Remnants of the tufa formations are still preserved on top of Gabal Barg El Sahab + 330 m., which lies some 15 km. to the south of the escarpment). Outside our area to the northwest, similar occurrences of the tufa have been frequently reported (Beadnell, 1920) on the upper portions of the cliffs overlooking El-Kharga depression. Quoting Beadnell on page 52 we read «In some localities they occur as thick horizontally stratified beds and were evidently deposited on the bottom of lakes and in other places they appear as fan-like cakes spread over the cliff and may have been formed by springs situated near the summits of the escarpments». In another page we read «the existence of thick deposits of calcareous tufa on the upper portions of the cliffs of the depression suggested considerable out pouring of water from springs». Whatever the origin of the tufa formations may be, their frequent occurrence on the upper portion of the escarpment which terminate the southern region of the «Limestone Plateau» (at least between G. Abu Ghorra and El-Kharga cliffs, a distance of about 400 km.) is rather attractive. Although we are not informed about the lateral distribution of such formations away from the cliffs, shall we be justified to assume that the frequent occurrences already mentioned are only relics of much wider occurrences dominating the «limestone plateau» and which have been destroyed by the succeeding climatic conditions. The existence in that area of two «synclinal basins» on both sides of « Tarfawi-Abu Baiyan Swell» (Fig. 1) may have favoured the presumed wider deposition of the tufa.

#### III.—PEDOLOGICAL ASPECTS

When discussing the factors affecting the formation of the soft material noted on the surface of the Lower Nuba Area (these are provisionally termed soils), mentioning of the geology, geomorphology and climatology, will be made. Avoiding all details, sands predominate very markedly in the «Lower Nuba Lowland» taking the form of large undulating plains of quartz sands; limestones, gypseous marls and

phosphatic beds occur in the «Cuesta» at the south and east edges of the «Lower Nuba Tableland». The climate in the whole area is now extremely arid (rain fall is 00", temperatures are high with wide daily and seasonal variations, atmospheric humidity is low, violent winds predominate through out the whole year ... etc). These conditions are responsible for the destruction of whatever soil cover may have been formed during the past humid periods (late Tertiary and early Quaternary) and for the production of the desert dust and drift sand expanses common to our area. Locally however, alluvial and lake-like deposits are still preserved in the low lying areas (either in the old drainage lines or in lakes). These deposits form locally lowlying terraces or occur as hammocks, the composition of which ranges from heavy loam to fine sandy or even in places very pebbly. Again these deposits are either exposed (as seen at Hatiet Abu Riheiwa) or veneered with a mantle of pebbles and cobble gravels (desert pavement). In some instances these deposits occur in a powdery from rich in gypsum while in others they are largely intermixed with drift sands. Whatever the type of soil may be, the profiles which were examined through out the whole area show some common characteristics such as the very week structure, the lack of organic matter and eventually the low or even rare clay content.

On morpho-pedologic basis, the Lower Nuba Area can be subdivided into the following regions (Map V).

1. The plateau surface; (elevation + 550 m. to + 250 m.). This occupies the heighest portion of our area and slopes in a westward direction. It is dominated by almost barren rocks composed of chalk and limestone of marine origin (Eocene and Cretaceous). In the places which we have examined, the marine beds are overlain by fresh water deposits (occasionally containing plant remains) which are known as the calcareous tufa. These deposits, tentatively assigned to the Pleistocene humid periods, occur in a very rough porous form with a greyish-black or reddish-black surface colour and a pale brown fracture and are sometimes weather resistant. On the plateau surface, fragments of silicified wood are occasionally seen.

- 2. The steep slopes; these constitute the top portions of the escarpments overlooking the «Lower Nuba Lowland». These slopes, are built of Eocene and Cretaceous limestones and chalks with a frequent occurrence of a cap of calcareous tufa, and are in many cases developed into almost vertical cliffs which are rather difficult to climb. Under such conditions, the weathering products of the tufa, the limestone or the chalk are carried under the influence of gravity to lower levels, leaving thus the surface of these slopes practically nacked. All these products are now found strewn at a lower level on the surface of the escarpment as well as on the plain surface.
- 3. The talus slopes; these continue almost to the foot of the escarpment. These slopes, built mainly of gypseous marls and phosphatic beds (Upper Cretaceous) are rather gentle (± 45°) and are for the most part covered with the weathering products of the overlying beds.
- 4. The bouldery surfaces; these skirt the foot of the escarpment at least from Gabal Abu Ghorra to the near reaches of Dungul i.e. over a distance of 100 km. These slopes (+250 m. to 200 m.) are nearly flat with a very gentle attitude in the eastward direction and are composed of boulders and gravels of varying degrees of roundess, and are undoubtedly derived by water from the rock material constituting the escarpment. The boulders are in many cases loose, but locally they are cemented into a conspicuous conglomerate. Underlying the boulders, gypseous marls and Nubian type sandstones are present.
- 5. The pre-Nubian surfaces; these are known in two widely separated regions, one of them is located to the south of G. Umm shaghir and the other exists directly to the south of Aswan. These are composed of almost peneplained acid igneous rocks and are covered with extensive sheets of drift sand. The acid igneous rocks are frequently cut through by dykes of basic igneous rocks. The kaolinised formations resulting by chemical weathering from the acid igneous rocks (reported by Attia-1955 in the area east of Aswan) have not been seen in our area (at any rate these may still be masked underneath the modern sand cover).

- 6. The old playa surfaces; these are confined to the shallow depressions characterizing the surface of the «Lower Nuba Plains» (elevation generally below 200 m.). These are almost flat and are underlain by relatively thick «soils» composed of sandy loam. In some cases, the loam give way to reddish sand and gypseous dust. These soils are originally water born (mainly by streams coming from the tableland area and which formed sorts of ephemeral lakes before they found their way to the Nile Valley or El Kharga Depression). In brief these soils are only the remains of much wider deposits which have escaped, to some extent, the degradation resulting from aridity.
- 7. The Rough Nubian Surfaces; these occupy most of the «Lower Nuba Plains». These plains are either built of barren rocks or are sprinkled with pebbles which are mostly jagged and sharp showing that they are the debris of the underlying rock material (these are described in some detail on p. 277 and 279).
- 8. The flat Nubian surfaces; these are also built of Nubian Sandstone beds. These beds are less resistant to weathering and are, therefore, practicably peneplained. In most parts they are covered over, not only by the weathering products (decayed sandstone, having always a reddish tint), but on top of them by drift sand deposits, which are always sprinkled with thin accumulations of quartz pebbles, gravels and occasionally fossil wood. In the courses of the many dry streams adjoining the Nile, the drift sand deposits are rather thick and are locally developed into dunes of different sizes.
- 9. The Nile Terraces; so far reported by our group on the west bank of the Nile at El Dakka and are directly underlain by the Nubian Sandstone layers. No much time was devoted to study these terraces, but the point which may merit consideration, is the association, with the fine material constituting such terraces, of cobble gravels and boulders derived mainly from basic igneous rocks (elevation roughly + 130 m. or 40 m. above the present Nile bed). In this connection we may refere to the «Late Mousterian-Early Sebilian Deposits» described by Sandford and Arkell (1933) on the same side of the Nile near Tushka. These

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deposits, rising some 27 m. above the present level of water in the Nile, are composed of silt, sands, gravels and shells and are also underlain by the Nubian Sandstone.

#### IV.—GROUNDWATER POTENTIALITIES

In the Lower Nuba Area, the strata of hydrologic interest, are composed of « Nubian Type» sandstones (Upper Cretaceous). These strata, having a thickness, rarely exceeding 200 m., are widely distributed in our area. Throughout this area, groundwater is obtainable from such strata only in the vicinity of El-Dakka (105 km. south of Aswan). In that locality, a number of pits are sunk in the «alluvial deposits which extend between the river and the edges of the sandstone deserts on both sides». The water from the pits « is derived from the sandstone beds which underlie the alluvial fans and are cut through by the Nile channel». In dissussing the problem of water contained in the Nubian layers and its relationship with the Nile, Ball (1927) is of the opinion that the artesian water in the Libyan Desert is not only independent from the Nile but that «large quantities of it seeps into the Nile in the Nubian reaches». According to this hypothesis, the Nile at El Dakka is « continually abstracting artesian water from the same underground sheet that feeds the oasis». Mitwally (1953), analysing the data collected by Ball, found that at the time when Ball made his observations (in December) the level of the water in the Nile was higher than the level of the water in the pits. This made him conclude that « seepage » would take place in an opposite direction, namely from the Nile into the permeable sandstones». This is confirmed by the recent boring of the «Ministry of High Dam» at El Dakka (Garf Hussein) where a water table, tilted away from the level of the water in the Nile, has been detected in the sandstone beds (Plate II). How far this water table extends, inland, is rather hard to imagine. Again, what the relationship, between the water seeping into the Nubian layers from the Nile and the ordinary « artesian water of the Libyan Desert», would be, is another problem. These questions and many others must, for some time, be left open.

However, we may say that the approach to the problem can be made through geophysical exploration (particularily by resistivity) and some test boring whereby measurements of the petro-physical and electrical properties of the different horizons in the «Nubian Sequence» can be achieved. Until this work is completed, can any anticipation as to the attitude of the ground water in the Lower Nuba area after the construction of the High Dam be made? Although a decided opinion can hardly be formed, attention to the following points will be drawn:

- 1. The regional tilting of the Nubian layers is in the westward direction i.e. away from the Nile. This is a rather important fact especially with regard to the downdip seepage of water from the Nile into such layers and also with regard to its bearing on the artesian conditions.
- 2. In the «Nubian sequence» we recognize more than one unconformity, characterized by the presence of conglomeratic sandstones. These unconformity surfaces, may have some favorable effects on the occurrence of water (of course whenever they produce more porosity to the aquifer) and in the same time they may produce some irregularities in the sequence and, therefore, introduce much uncertainty to the ground water forecasts.
- 3. The possible occurrence of «positive elements in the pre-Nubian surface» in the vicinity of the Nile, as well as in the wide area south of Umm Shaghir (Plate I) may not allow a free movement of the water into the Nubian layers.
- 4. The Lower Nuba Area is crossed in the region south of « El-Sinn Plateau», by a series of E-W faults (Map II). These faults may furnish suitable water courses across that area. But the fact that the faults have not been observed to cut the Nile channel, and that in many cases the fault lines are plugged with quartzitic sandstones, is not in favour of the direct connection between the « Nubian aquifer» and the feeding area (Nile).

Still remains the problem of the water supply in the two small oases of Kurkur + 330 m. and Dungul + 255 m. The answer to the question, whether this limited supply, now occurring in the Upper Senonian

layers, is derived «solely from rain-water or is related to the known artesian water of the Libyan Desert», is not settled. An interesting observation we made during our short visit to Dungul, is the association of the water sources with the E-W system of faults, (at Kurkur, the possible effect of the water supply with faulting is weekly evident). We may, accordingly assume that these faults furnish direct connection between the Nubian aquifer and the Upper Senonian strata, where the water now exists.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The writer wishes to express his appreciation to his colleagues in the Geology Department of the Desert Institute namely M. El-Shazli, M. R. Salem, I. El-Faiyoumi, M. El-Awadi, M. El-Rayés (Lab. Assistance) and Abdel-Hamid Khalfalla (drafts man) for their assistance both in the field and in the office.

#### APPENDIX Nº I

### ON THE OCCURRENCE OF MOUSTERIAN IMPLEMENTS IN THE LOWER NUBA AREA

During the course of our expedition in the Lower Nuba Area, we had the opportunity to collect a number of flint and quartz implements, as well as pieces of igneous rocks, which show some working (both acid and basic), quartzites (occurring as discs) and internal casts of invertebrate fossils (Cephalopods, most probably Nautilus sp.). The site from which the collection was made, is in the vicinity of Hatiet Abu Riheiwa (mean ground elevation + 170 m.) which lies some 60 km. to the southwest of Aswan and about 35 km. west of the Nile channel at Kalabsha (Fig. 3).

The collection was submitted to Prof. Ibrahim Rizkana (Head of the Geography Dept., Faculty of Arts, Cairo University) who became much interested in the implements and described them as attractive and rather important. According to Prof. Rizkana, the implements belong to the Aterian Culture which is an evolved variant of the Mousterian. They include flat points of laurel-leaf shape and bifaced plates.

Careful examination of the material will then be made and a joint paper with Prof. Rizkana will be prepaired.

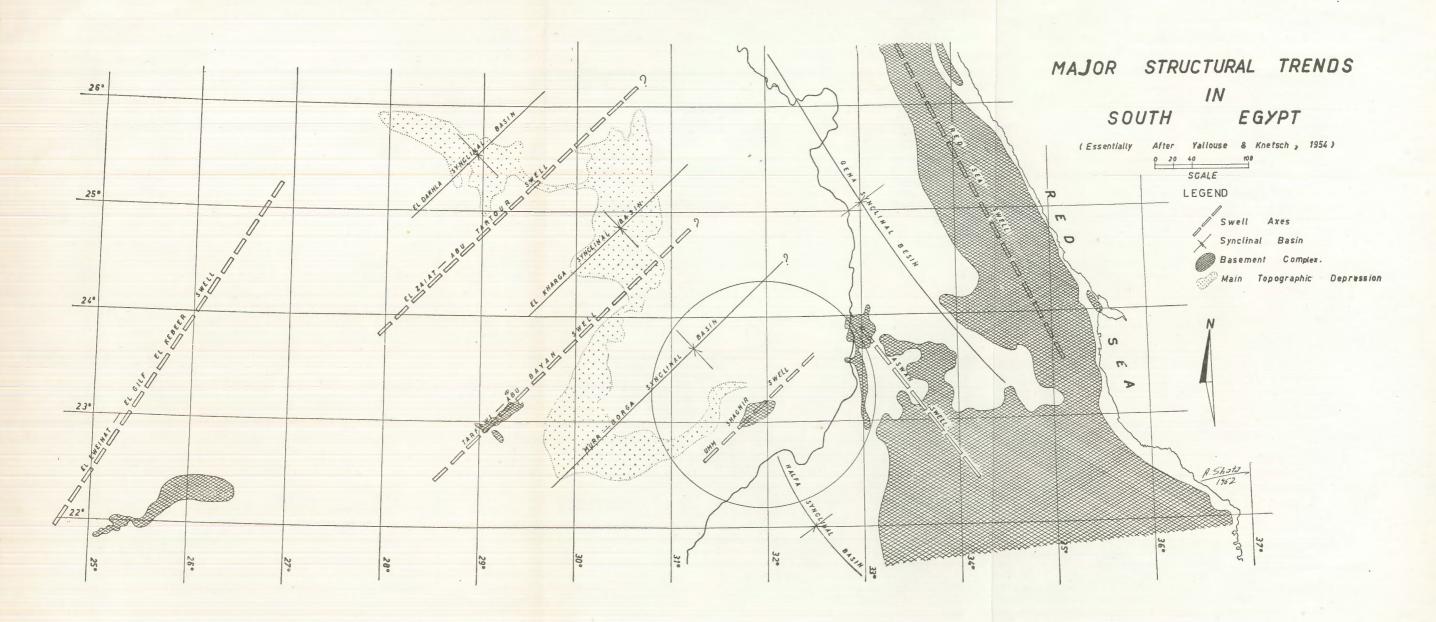
#### APPENDIX Nº II

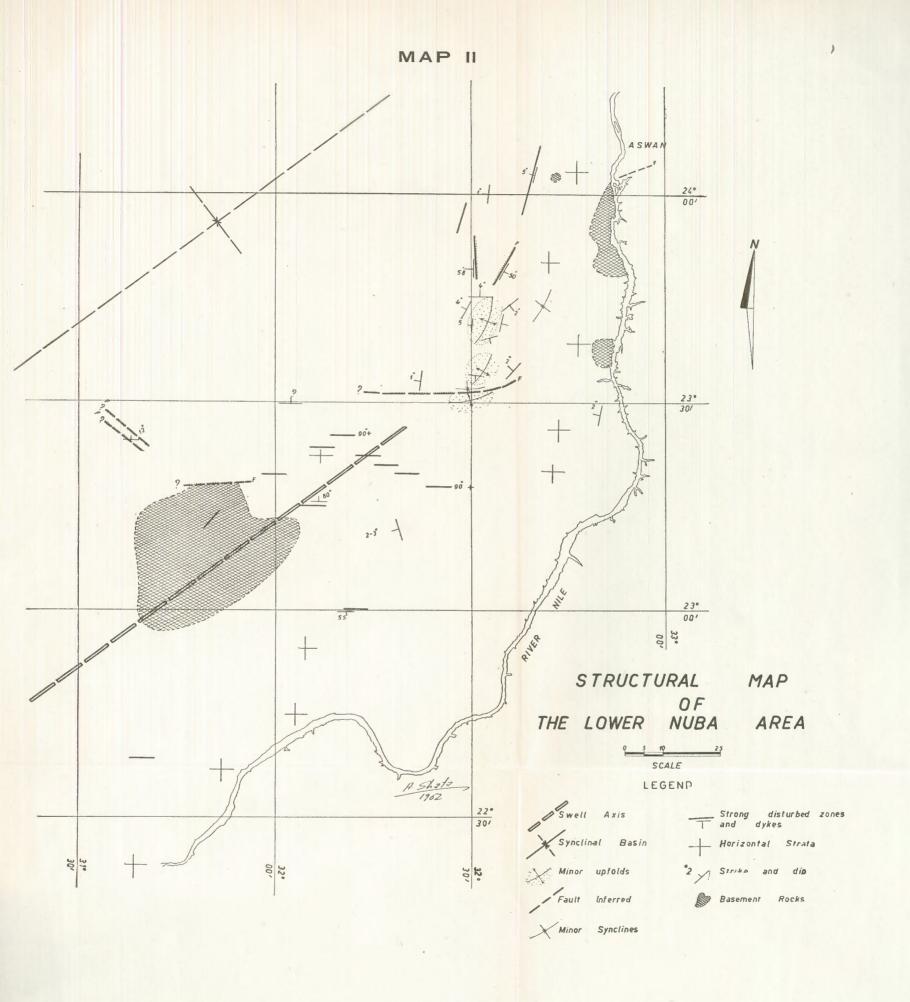
#### ON THE VEGETATION IN THE LOWER NUBA AREA

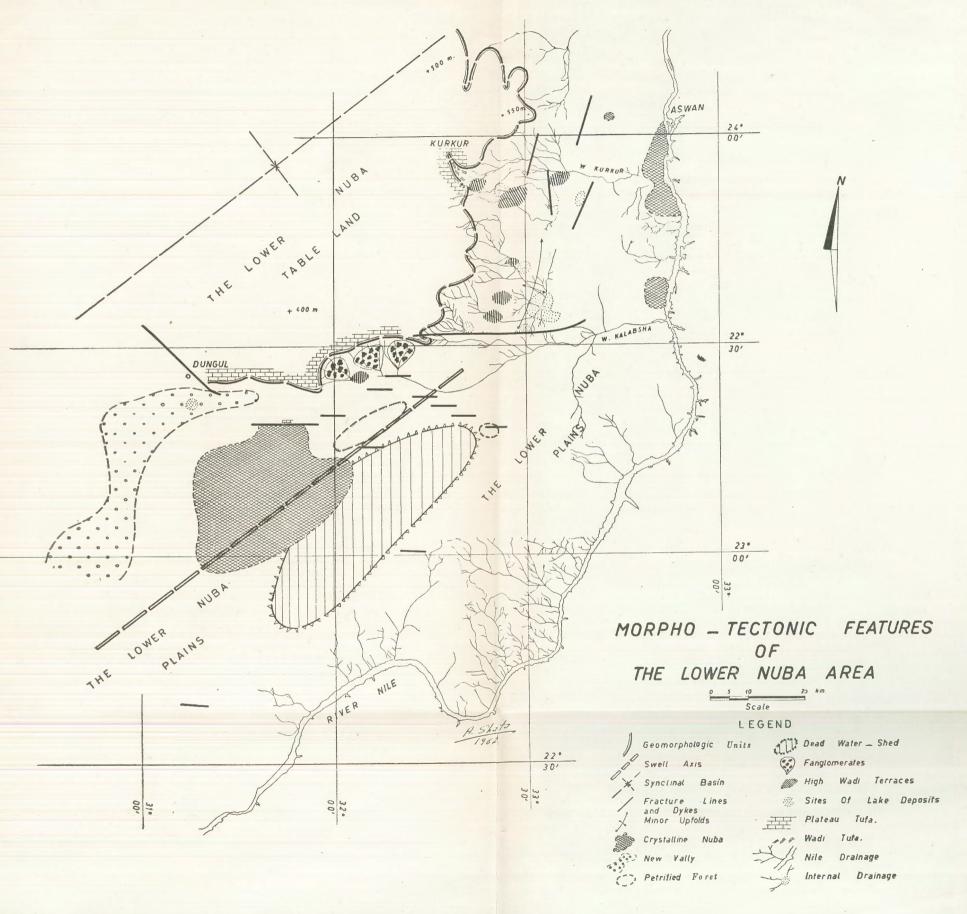
In the Lower Nuba, although the surface, shows almost all signs of degradation, scanty perennial vegetation can be distinguished. The occurring plants are restricted to certain portions of the dry stream coarses, as well as the shallow depressions common to the «Lower Nuba Plains» (Hatiat). These portions are dominated by «light textured alluvial soils» which are intermixed with varying quantities of aeolean sand. Generally speaking, the plant community is there characterised by Salsola spp. and Tamarix spp. An exceptional case exists in the two oases of Kurkur and Dungul, where the groundwater comes to the surface and where green patches of relatively wide extension are present. The plant community in Kurkur Oasis is characterised by Hyphaene thebaica, Acacia spp., Zygophyllum spp., Alhagi maurorum together with Phragmites sp., Phoenix spp., Coloeynthis valgaris . . . etc.

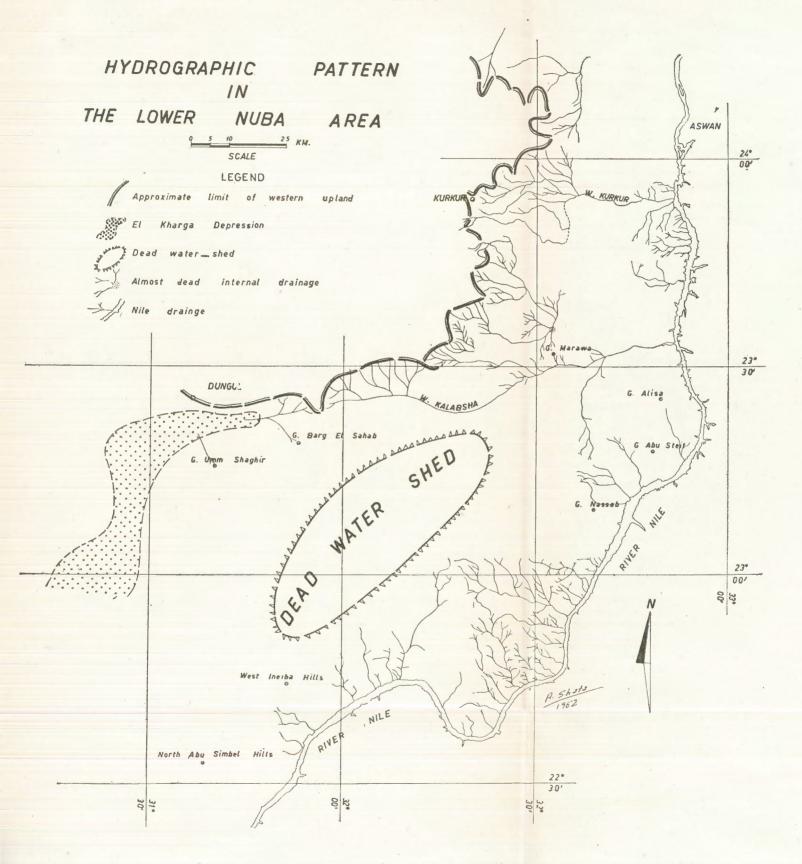
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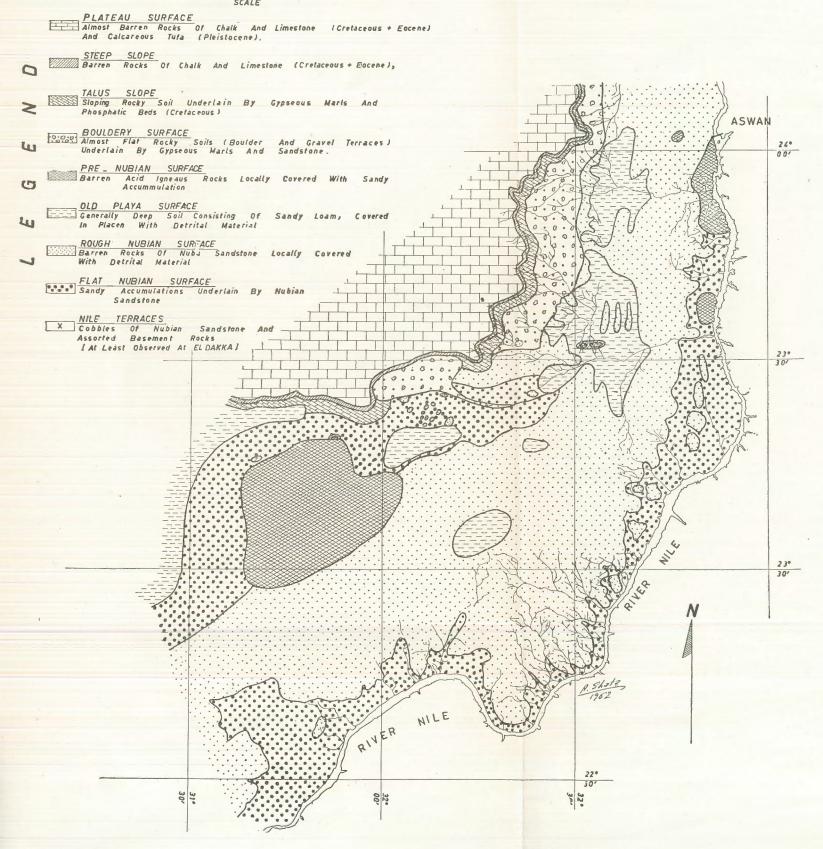


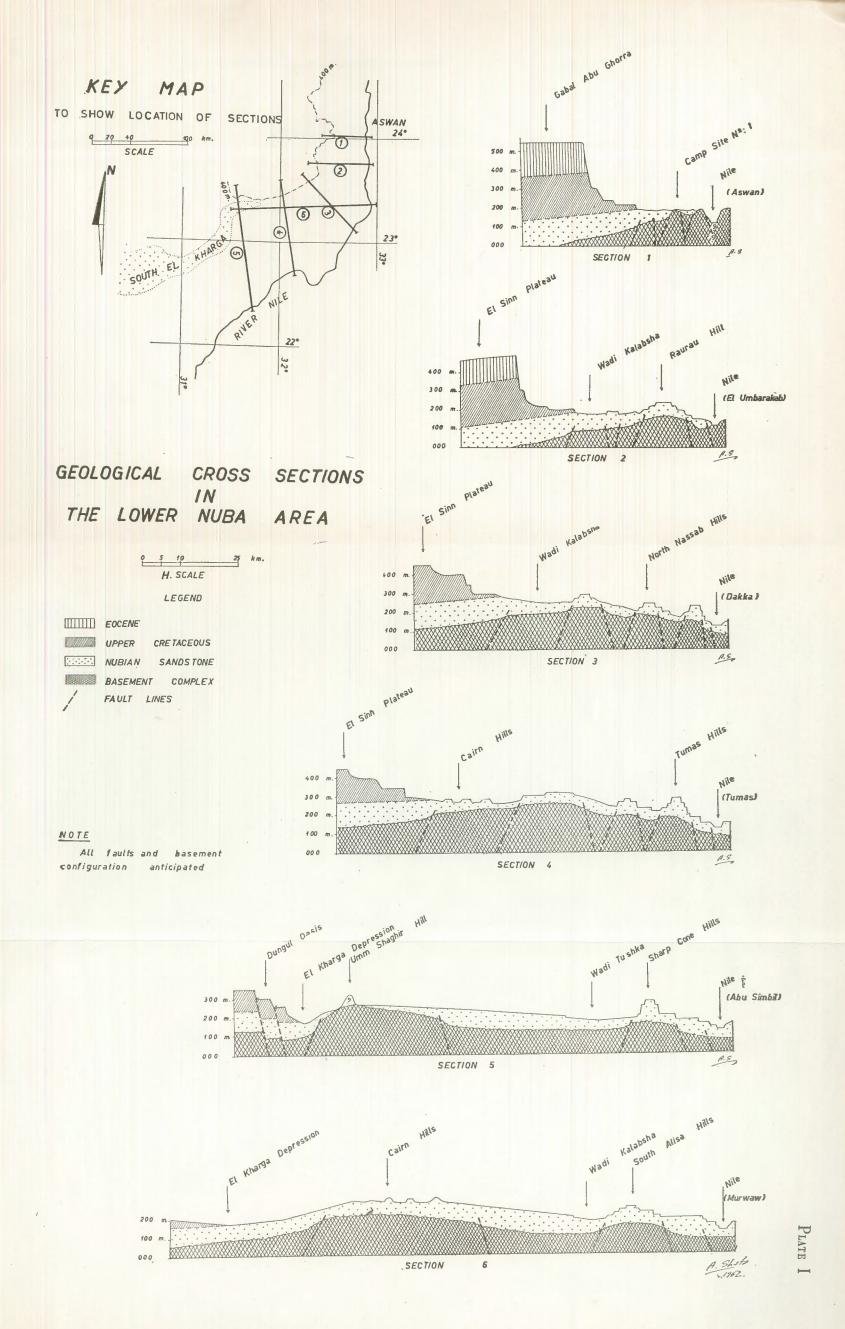


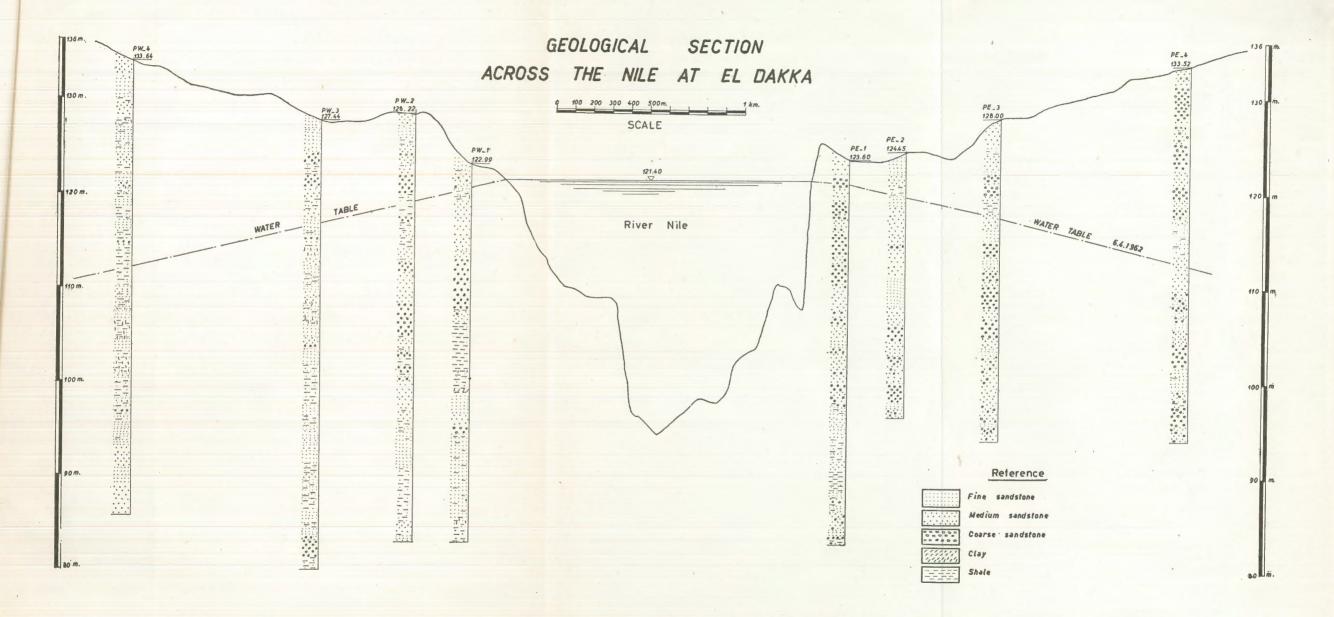


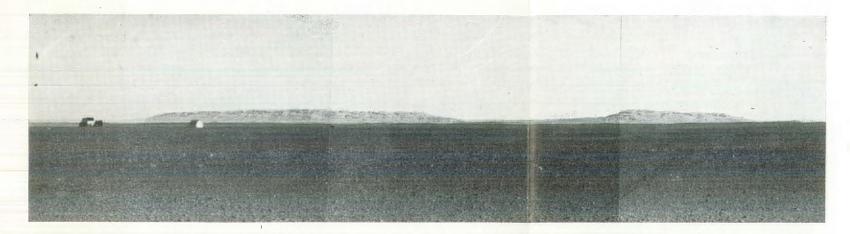


## MORPHO — PEDOLOGIC FEATURES OF THE LOWER NUBA AREA SCALE SCALE MORPHO — PEDOLOGIC FEATURES

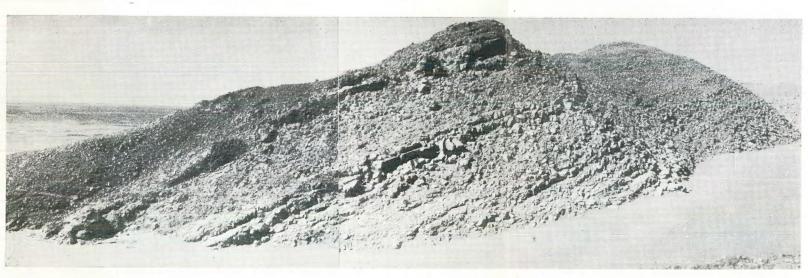








Distant view of Gabal Marawa; note the desert pavement in the foreground; view looking south.



(Photos by A. Shata).

Steep dip slope on the south flank of Gabal Marawa; note the flat plains in the background; view looking west.



A

Deposits of the calcareous tufa in the upper portion of Wadi Kurkur;

view looking west.



(Photos by A. Shata).

Cemented gravel and boulder terraces in the upper reaches of Wadi Kalabsha.

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#### LE PREMIER CONGRÈS DES GÉOGRAPHES ARABES

#### LE CAIRE, 27 JANVIER - 2 FÉVRIER 1962

Le premier Congrès des Géographes Arabes fut ouvert le samedi 27 janvier 1962 à 5h. p.m. au siège de la Société de Géographie d'Egypte, par un discours inaugural de Monsieur le Dr. Saroit Okasha Président du Conseil Supérieur des Arts, des Lettres et des Sciences Sociales. Le Dr. Okasha souhaita la bienvenue aux délégations des Pays Arabes qui participaient au Congrès et fit ressortir l'importance du rôle de la géographie dans les projets de développement actuellement en cours dans les Pays Arabes.

Puis le Dr. Soliman Huzayyin, Rapporteur du Comité de Géographie au Conseil Supérieur, prononça une allocution. Il fut suivi à tour de rôle par le :

- 1. Président de la Délégation de la Ligue des Etats Arabes.
- 2. Représentant au Congrès de la République Tunisienne.
- 3. Représentant au Congrès de la République du Soudan.
- 4. Représentant au Congrès de la République du Liban.
- 5. Représentant au Congrès du Maroc.
- 6. Représentant au Congrès du Koweit.
- 7. Représentant au Congrès du Gouvernement Provisoire de la République Algérienne.

Après que la dernière allocution fut prononcée, les invités présents furent conviés à prendre le thé offert à cette occasion par la Société de Géographie d'Egypte.

Le Congrès tint ensuite sa première réunion générale sous la présidence du Dr. Soliman Huzayyin, Vice-Président du Congrès, au cours de laquelle les congressistes examinèrent l'idée directrice qui suscita la réunion du Congrès et l'approuvèrent à l'unanimité. Il fut décidé que pour répondre aux objectifs du Congrès, les Commissions auront à étudier les divers côtés suivants :

- 1. Le rôle des Études géographiques dans la formation de la Nation Arabe. Trois commissions se partageront cette tâche.
  - (a) Commission du Développement agricole et animal.
  - (b) Commission du Développement minier et industriel.
  - (c) Commission géographique pour la planification économique.
  - 2. Révision des programmes de géographie enseignés dans les Pays Arabes.

Il fut décidé de former une Commission spéciale dont les membres seront pris parmi le personnel qui participe à l'élaboration des programmes aux ministères de l'Éducation Nationale et dans les Universités Arabes. 3. Arabisation des termes géographiques.

Une Commission sera formée qui aura charge de revoir les termes géographiques déjà adoptés par les Comités appartenant au Conseil Supérieur des Arts, des Lettres et des Sciences Sociales. L'Académie de Langue arabe sera représentée à cette Commission.

Après discussion, il fut décidé que les commissions seront présidées chacune par un représentant des pays arabes participant au Congrès.

Les séances du Congrès prirent fin jeudi 1° février 1962. Durant la session du Congrès, les membres prirent part à deux excursions au Fayoum et à Alexandrie.

Parmi les recommandations prises par le Congrès, la plus importante est la création d'une «Union des Géographes Arabes» dont nous publions les statuts ci-après.

#### L'UNION GÉOGRAPHIQUE ARABE

- 1. Une Union des géographes arabes est fondée sous le nom d'«Union Géographique Arabe».
- 2. Le but de l'Union se définit comme suit :
- (a) Raffermir les liens entre ceux qui s'occupent des études géographiques dans la Nation Arabe.
- (b) Organiser des rencontres périodiques entre les géographes arabes. Organiser les séances du Congrès des géographes arabes et de ses comités permanents. Un Congrès sera tenu tous les deux ans.
- (c) Organiser l'échange des connaissances entre ceux qui s'occupent des études géographiques dans la Nation Arabe. Étendre cet échange aux Organismes scientifiques qui relèvent de ces études dans les domaines de la recherche ou de l'enseignement.
- (d) Préparer des notices et des travaux sur le progrès des études géographiques relatives à la Nation Arabe et les diffuser le plus largement possible.
- (e) Coordonner la coopération entre les géographes arabes en vue de leur permettre de mener à bien des travaux collectifs. Coordonner leurs points de vue lors des réunions et Congrès de Géographie internationaux.
- 3. Tous les géographes arabes peuvent devenir membres de l'Union. Peuvent également être admis à titre de membres correspondants les géographes non-arabes dont les travaux sont en rapport étroit avec la Nation Arabe.
- 4. L'Union sera représentée dans chaque pays arabe par un groupement qui réunira tous ceux qui s'occupent des études géographiques. Chaque groupement établira ses propres statuts.

Dans les pays où un tel groupement n'aura pu être formé, l'Union aura un ou plusieurs représentants parmi les membres dont les noms auront été inscrits à son Secrétariat Général.

- 5. L'Union aura comme membre correspondant de son propre pays le Secrétaire de chaque groupement ou, si un tel groupement n'a pu être formé, l'un de ses membres. Le membre correspondant sera chargé des rapports avec le Secrétariat Général de l'Union.
- 6. L'Union aura un Secrétariat Général dont le siège sera à la Société de Géographie au Caire.

Le Secrétariat comprendra le membre correspondant du groupement de la R.A.U., le délégué de l'Institut des Hautes-Études arabes qui relève de la Ligue des Etats Arabes et le délégué de la Direction Culturelle au Secrétariat Général de la Ligue des Etats Arabes.

Le Secrétariat sera chargé des travaux techniques ; il mettra également à exécution tout ce qui se rattache aux travaux de l'Union et à son Bureau.

La Société de Géographie se chargera de fournir au Bureau de l'Union ce dont il aura besoin pour ses travaux d'administration, de rédaction et autres.

7. L'Union aura un Bureau qui se réunira au moins une fois l'an au siège de la Société de Géographie au Caire, ou dans l'une des autres capitales arabes.

Le Bureau sera chargé d'exécuter les travaux de l'Union; il préparera les convocations aux séances du Congrès des géographes arabes et organisera les relations entre le Congrès des géographes arabes et les Congrès Internationaux similaires. Les membres du Bureau éliront un Président, deux Vice-Présidents et un Secrétaire Général.

#### Décision provisoire :

Le Bureau fondateur est chargé des travaux de l'Union à titre provisoire jusqu'à ce que chaque groupement ou organisme désigné en chacun des pays arabes ait choisi son ou ses représentants au Bureau. Le Bureau fondateur continuera à s'occuper des affaires de l'Union jusqu'à ce que le Bureau ainsi constitué tienne sa première réunion.

#### 20TH INTERNATIONAL GEOGRAPHICAL CONGRESS

The 20th International Geographical Congress will be held in the United Kingdom in July 1964. The Congress is being organized by an Executive Committee under the Chairmanship of Prof. L. Dudley Stamp. The organizing Secretary is Prof. T. H. Elkins.

The Second circular of the Congress has been published. It contains final application forms, and full details of all congress activities. Copies of this circular are now available from:

The Secretariat

20th International Geographical Congress,
c/o Royal Geographical Society,
London S. W. 7.

سابعاً ــ يكون للاتحاد مكتب يجتمع مرة على الأقل كل سنة بمقر الأمانة العامة أو بإحدى العواصم العربية الأخرى . ويتألف من ثلاثة أعضاء على الأكثر من كل بلد عربى ، و لا يكون للبلد فى المكتب غير صوت واحد معدود . ويتولى المكتب تصريف شئون الاتحاد وتنظيم الدعوة إلى اجتماعات المؤتمر الجغرافي العربي وتنظيم الصلة بين المؤتمر الجغرافي العربي والمؤتمرات الدولية المماثلة . ويختار أعضاء المكتب رئيساً ووكيلين وأميناً للمكتب .

#### حكم مؤقت :

يتولى المكتب التأسيسي للاتحاد شئون الاتحاد بصفة مؤقتة حتى تتم كل شعبة أو الهيئة المعنية في كل بلد عربى اختيار ممثلها أو ممثلها في المكتب ويستمر المكتب التأسيسي في القيام بشئون الاتحاد حتى ينعقد المكتب في اجتماعه الأول.

#### الاتحاد الجغرافي العربي

أو لا – ينشأ للجغرافيين العرب اتحاد يسمى «الاتحاد الجغرافي العربي».

ثانياً – تكون أغراض الاتحاد ما يأتى :

- ١ توثيق الصلات بين المشتغلين بالدراسات الجغرافية في الوطن العربي .
- ٢ تنظيم اجتماعات دورية للمشتغلين بالدراسات الجغرافية العربية ، وبصفة خاصة تنظيم
   اجتماعات المؤتمر الجغرافي العربي ولجانه الدائمة . ويكون انعقاد المؤتمر مرة كل سنتين .
- ٣ تنظيم تبادل المعلومات بين المشتغلين بالدراسات الجغرافية في الوطن العربي ، وكذلك بين الهيئات العلمية القائمة على هذه الدراسات بحثًا وتعليمًا .
- إعداد نشرات وبحوث عن تقدم الدراسات الجغرافية المتصلة بالوطن العربى وتوزيعها
   أو أوسع نطاق .
- تنسيق التعاون في أجراء البحوث المشتركة بين الجغرافيين العرب والعمل على تنسيق وجهات نظرهم في الاجتماعات والمؤتمرات الجغرافية الدولية .
- ثالثاً تكون عضوية الاتحاد مفتوحة لكل الجغرافيين العرب ، ويجوز قبول أعضاء مراسلين من الجغرافيين غير العرب ممن لهم اتصال وثيق بالدراسات الجغرافية في الوطن العربي .
- رابعاً تكون للاتحاد شعبة فى كل بلد عربى تجمع المشتغلين بالدراسات الجغرافية فيه ، وتضع كل شعبة نظامها الخاص . وفى البلاد التى لا تتألف بها شعبة يكتنى بأن يكون للاتحاد عضو أو أكثر ممن تسجل أساؤهم فى الاتحاد بمقر أمانته العامة .
- خامسًا يكون أمين الشعبة في كل بلد عربي أو أحد أعضاء الاتحاد عضواً مراسلا للاتحاد في بلده يتولى أعمال الاتصال بالأمانة العامة للاتحاد .
- سادساً تكون للاتحاد أمانة عامة مقرها الجمعية الجغرافية بمدينة القاهرة. وتتألف من العضو المراسل لشعبة الجمهورية العربية المتحدة ، ومن مندوب لمعهد الدراسات العربية العالية التابع لجامعة الدول العربية ، وتتولى الأعمال الدول العربية ، وتتولى الأعمال الفنية والتنفيذية لكل ما يتصل بأعمال الاتحاد ومكتبه .

وتقوم الجمعية الجغرافية بتزويد المكتب بما يحتاج إليه من الحدمات الإدارية والكتابية وغيرها .

١٩ يرى المؤتمر أن جميع الظروف الاقتصادية والاجتماعية والحفرافية للبلاد العربية تكاد تكون واحدة ، وأن ما اتبعته الدول العربية من وسائل في سبيل إعداد التنمية والتنظيم للقوى العاملة بها من سن للقوانين والتشريعات وإصدار للقرارات واللوائح تكاد تتشابه دون اختلاف جوهرى .

لذلك يعرض المؤتمر بأن تعمل الدول العربية على توحيد أو تنسيق الوسائل المتصلة بدراسة وإحصاء وتدريب القوى العاملة في الدول العربية وتطويرها وتنميتها وتوحيد مبادىء التشريعات التي تنظمها .

٠٠– وافقت اللجنة بالإجماع على التوصية بقيام الاتحاد الجغرافي العربي .

٩ – الاهتمام بالصناعة كمصدر للدخل لرفع مستوى المعيشة .

• ١- تشجيع البحوث المتعلقة بالموارد المعدنية في البلاد العربية وأن تربط بالعمران مواضعها المتطرفة عن طريق شبكات متكاملة من وسائل المواصلات ، وكذلك الاهتام بدراسة الصناعة الصلبية في البلاد العربية كدعامة التطور الصناعي الحديث ، مع دراسة مشتملات التمويل والعمالة والوقود والتسويق التي تتصل بهذه الصناعة .

١١- نشر المكتبة الجغرافية العربية .

١٢- محاولة إحياء الكتاب العربي الجغرافي القديم لتكوين مكتبة جغرافية عن طريق نشر المطبوع وطبع المخطوط.

١٣– العناية بإنشاء متاحف أثنوجرافية تضم الأدوات المستعملة حاليًا في البادية وفي الواحات حتى لا تضيع معالم هذه الأشياء مع التغير الاجتماعي والاقتصادي .

١٤- يؤكد المؤتمر قيمة الدراسات الجغرافية كأساس يعتمد عليه في الدراسات التخطيطية الاقتصادية والإقليمية ، ولذلك يوصى بضرورة الاهمام بتوجيه الأبحاث الجغرافية نحو خدمة أغراض التخطيط.

١٥– إن المؤتمر إذ يدرك ما للإحصاءات والمعلومات الإحصائية من أهمية بالغة بالنسبة للتخطيط الحغرافي لمشروعات التنمية الاقتصادية والاجتماعية .

يوصى بأن تيسر الدول العربية وأجهزتها الإحصائية للجغرافيين سبل الحصول على المعلومات الإحصائية على أوسع مدى وأن تعمل على التنسيق بين البحوث الإحصائية والبحوث الجغرافية حتى يتحقق التكامل بين هذه البحوث.

١٦- أن تعمل أجهزة الاحصاء في كل دولة عربية على تبادل المعلومات الإحصائية مع أجهزة الإحصاء في الدول العربية الأخرى والاستفادة من خبراتها والعمل قدر المستطاع على توحيد الاصطلاحات والوسائل العملية المتبعة فى تجميع وتحليل المعلومات الإحصائية حتى يمكن الانتفاع بهذه المعلومات ونتائجها في المحيط العربي كله .

١٧- يدرك المؤتمر ما للجغرافية من صلة وثيقة بالتخطيط من حيث فائدتها في التعرف على الموارد الطبيعية من نباتية وحيوانية وفي التعرف على البيئة من حيث الطقس والمناخ والموقع الحغرافي والاتصال بالمناطق الأخرى ذات الصلة الاقتصادية والتعرف على بعض النواحي الخاصة بالموارد البشرية من حيث وجود السكان وطبيعة معيشتهم وأصولهم .

وهويوصي بأن يتجه الحغرافيون في محوثهم ودراساتهم إلى خدمة التخطيط على المستوى القومي والحلي لكل دولة عربية تمهيداً لتخطيط جغرافي على مستوى الوطن العربي بأكمله .

١٨- ضرورة الاهتمام بدراسة موضوع السكان في البلاد العربية والتوصية بضرورة إجراء إحصاءات سكانية دورية منتظمة في جميع أنحاء العالم العربي وتوحيد موضوعات الإحصاءات السكانية وتنسيقها تنسيقاً مقارناً .

ثانياً - دراسة مناهج الجغرافية في التعليم العام في البلاد العربية.

ورؤى أن تقرر لها لحنة خاصة من القائمين على تخطيط المناهج في وزارات التربية والتعليم والحامعات العربية.

الجمعية الجغرافية المصرية

ثالثاً - المصطلحات الجغرافية وتعريبها:

ورؤى أيضاً أن تقرر لها لجنة تتولى مراجعة المصطلحات التي أعدتها لجان المجلس الأعلى لرعاية الفنون والآداب والعلوم الاجتماعية خلال العام الماضي – كما تقرر أيضاً تمثيل مجمع اللغة العربية

و بعد المناقشة تقرر أن يرأس كل لجنة من هذه اللجان ممثل من البلاد العربية المشتركة في المؤتمر. وانتهت جلسات المؤتمر في يوم الخميس أول فبراير سنة ١٩٦٢ ، وقد قام الأعضاء خلال انعقاد المؤتمر وبعده برحلتين إلى الفيوم والأسكندرية .

#### توصيات المؤتمر:

انتهى المؤتمر إلى عدد من التوصيات أهمها:

١ – إعداد قائمة بالجغرافيين العرب لتداولها في الوطن العربي .

- ٢ إيجاد صلة بين الجغرافيين وبين المتخصصين في العلوم المتصلة بالجغرافية . وكذلك الهيئات المعنية بالتعريب في أنحاء الوطن العربي مثل : مجمع اللغة العربية وهيئة التعريب بالرباط (وهي تابعة لحامعة الدول العربية).
- ٣ -- حصر خرائط الوطن العربي في كل أجزاء هذا الوطن وإعداد قوائم بها تبين المعلومات العلمية والفنية وجهة الإصدار والثمن وغير ذلك مما يفيد الباحثين ويعينهم على الحصول عليها .
- ٤ تبادل الوثائق الجغرافية بما في ذلك الخرائط والمصطلحات والبحوث الميدانية والإحصاءات و العمل على نشر هذه الوثائق والتعريف بها .
- ه تعاون الهيئات الجغرافية والفنية في الوطن العربي على إصدار أطلس للوطن العربي يشتمل على أكبر قدر ممكن من التوزيعات الجغرافية ، وكذلك إصدار خرائط حائط .
- ٣ تشكيل لجنة دائمة للمصطلحات تنقسم إلى عدة لجان فرعية بحيث تغطى فروع الجغرافية وتقوم بعمل الشروح والرسوم اللازمة لكل مصطلح .
- ٧ توجيه المناهج الحغرافية وجهة عربية ، والتقريب بين هذه المناهج والعناية بكل ما يبرز وحدة الوطن العربي .
  - ٨ تبادل البحوث الخاصة بالتنمية الزراعية والصناعية والصناعة الريفية .

#### المؤتمر الجغرافي العربي الأول

المنعقد بالقاهرة في المدة من ٢٧ يناير إلى ٢ فبراير سنة ١٩٦٢

#### افتتاح المؤتمر:

في تمام الساعة الحامسة بعد ظهر يوم السبت ٢٧ يناير سنة ١٩٦٢ افتتح المؤتمر بمقر الجمعية الجنوانية المصرية السيد/ الدكتور ثروت عكاشة رئيس المجلس الأعلى لرعاية الفنون والآداب والعلوم الاجتماعية بكلمة رحب فيها سيادته بوفود الدول العربية المشتركة في المؤتمر وأشاد بدور المخرافية في مشروعات التنمية في البلاد العربية.

ثم ألتى الأستاذ الدكتور سليمان حزين مقرر لجنة الجغرافية بالمجلس كلمة تعاقبت بعدها كلمات كل من :

- ١ رئيس وفد الحامعة العربية .
- ٢ ممثل الجمهورية التونسية في المؤتمر .
- ٣ مثل الجمهورية السودانية في المؤتمر.
- ع مثل الحمهورية اللبنانية في المؤتمر.
  - ه مثل المملكة المغربية في المؤتمر .
  - ٣ مثل دولة الكويت في المؤتمر.
- ٧ ممثل الحكومة المؤقته لجمهورية الجزائر .

وعقب انتهاء الكلمات توجه المدعوون إلى حفل الشاى الذى أقامته الجمعية الجغرافية لأعضاء المؤتمر .

وبعد تناول الشاى عقد المؤتمر جلسته العامة الأولى برئاسة الأستاذ الدكتور سلمان حزين نائب رئيس المؤتمر، حيث استعرض فيها السادة الأعضاء الفكرة العامة من عقد المؤتمر وأقروها بالإجماع، وقد رؤى أن تكون اللجان بحيث تشمل جميع النواحى التي تضمنها وهى:

أو لا – دور الدراسات الجغرافية في بناء الكيان العربي :

ورؤى أن تقسم الدراسة على ثلاث لجان هي :

- (١) لحنة التنمية الزراعية والحيوانية .
- (ب) لحنة التنمية التعدينية والصناعية.
- ( ج ) لجنة التخطيط الجغرافي للمشروعات الاقتصادية .

القاهرة مُطَانِعًا لِمُعَالِظُ لِغَالِمُ الْفَائِدِينَ الْسَائِلِ اللَّهِ مَعْلِمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعِلَّمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعِلَّمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ اللَّهِ مُنْ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعَالِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعَلِمُ الْمُعِلَمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلَمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلَمُ الْمُعِلَمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلَمُ الْمُعِلَمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمِعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمِعِلَمُ الْمِعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمِعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمِعِلِمُ الْمِعِمِلُومُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمِعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِلِمُ الْمُعِم

1975

# المنابعة الم

المجلد الخامس والثلاثون

# المعالمة الم

#### الجمعية الجغرافية المصرية

شارع القصر العيني – مكتب بريد قصر الدوبارة تليفون ٢٥٤٥٠

#### مجلس الإدارة

مدير عام مصلحة الآثار سابقاً ومدير جامعة الأسكندرية سابقاً .	الأستاذ مصطنى عامر (اليرئيس)
وزير التربية والتعليم سابقاً .	الأستاذ الدكتور محمد عوض مجمد
أ أستاذ ورئيس قسم الجغرافيا – كلية الآداب – جامعة عين شمس .	
مدير عام مصلحة المناجم والمحاجر سابقاً .	المهندس محمود ابراهيم عطيه (نائب الرئيس وأمين الصندوق)
مدير 'جامعة أسيوط .	الأستاذ الدكتور سليمإن أحمد حزين
كبير مفتشى المواد الاجتماعية بوزارة التربية والتعليم .	الأستاذ محمد سيد قصر
أستاذ مساعد بكلية الآداب - جامعة القاهرة .	الدكتور مجمد صفى الدين أبو العز
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( أستاذ ورئيس قسم الجغرافيا – كلية الآداب   جامعة القاهرة .	الأستاذ الدكتور ابراهيم أحمد رزقانه
أستاذ مساعد بكلية الآداب – جامعة عين شمس	الدكتور نصر السيد نصر
مدرس بكلية الآداب – جامعة الأسكندرية .	الدكتور على عبد الوهاب شاهين

رئيس قدر المجلة: الاستاذ الدكتور محمد محمود الصياد

## المعالجة المعالمة الم

المجلد الخامس والثلاثون